DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 027 061 PS 001 393

By-Jarolimek, John, Ed.

Social Studies Education: The Elementary School.

National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C.

Spons Agency-National Education Association, Washington, D.C.

Pub Date 67

Note-71p.

Available from-National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036 ($1.50).

EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC Not Available from EDRS.

Descriptors-*Anthologies, Concept Teaching, Democratic Values, *Elementary Education, Fundamental Concepts, Geographic Concepts, Individual Instruction, Individualized Programs, Locational Skills (Social Studies), Moral Values, Personal Values, *Social Studies, Social Values, Study Skills, Teaching Skills

A collection of reprinted articles, this document examines concepts, values, skills, and individualizing instruction in elementary social studies education. The subjects of the articles and their authors are as follows: (1) conceptual approaches, John Jarolimek, (2) introducing social studies concepts, Melvin Arnoff, (3) problems in developing social studies concepts, Agnes M. S. Inn, (4) using learning resources in concept development, Lloyd Kendall, (5) concept-based curricula, Francis Peter Hunkins, (6) values, William R. Fielder, (7) values and the primary school teacher, Bernice J. Wolfson, (8) value teaching in the middle and upper grades, Melvin Ezer, (9) using learning resources in teaching values, Gerald M. Torkelson, (10) values component, Nancy W. Bauer, (11) the role of skills, Helen McCracken Carpenter, (12) skills teaching, O. L. Davis, Jr. (14) using learning resources, Clarence O. Bergeson, (15) skills in the elementary school social studies curriculum, Clifford D. foster, (16) the individual and the social studies, Vincent R. Rogers, (17) individualizing instruction, Lorraine D. Peterson, (18) providing for individual differences, W. Linwood Chase, (19) learning resources for individualizing instruction, Huber M. Walsh, (20) curriculum provisions for individual differences, Robert Groeschell. (JS)

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND
PUBLISHER'S PRICES. MICRO-
FICHE REPRODUCTION ONLY.

PS 001393

social studies education

the elementary school

focus on

- concepts
- values
- skills
- individualizing instruction

JOHN JAROLIMEK, *Editor*

Reprinted from SOCIAL EDUCATION —
Official Journal of the NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Officers for 1967

President
Richard E. Gross
School of Education
Stanford University
Stanford, California

President-Elect
Ralph W. Cordier
State University of Pennsylvania
Indiana, Pennsylvania

Vice-President
Ronald O. Smith
Portland Public School
Portland, Oregon

Editor, Social Education
Lewis Paul Todd
Washington, D.C.

Directors

Ruth O. M. Andersen

James M. Becker

Adeline Brengle

Rose L. Chow Hoy

Helen M. Garrett

Jean D. Grambs

William H. Hartley

Francis W. Mann

Lawrence E. Metcalf

Isidore Starr

Executive Secretary
Merrill F. Hartshorn
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

Publications Committee, 1967
Jack Allen, *Chairman*
George Peabody College for Teachers

Ruth Ellsworth
Wayne State University

Leslie Wood
Indiana University

The National Council for the Social Studies is the Department of Social Studies of the National Education Association of the United States. It is the professional organization of teachers of social studies. It holds a series of meetings each year and publishes materials of significance to those interested in this field. Membership in the National Council carries with it a subscription to the Council's official journal, *Social Education,* the monthly magazine for social studies teachers, and the Yearbook. In addition, the Council publishes bulletins, pamphlets, and other materials of practical use for teachers of the social studies. Membership dues are $9 a year. Applications for membership and orders for the purchase of publications should be made to the Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND PUBLISHER'S PRICES. MICROFICHE REPRODUCTION ONLY.

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION: THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

JOHN JAROLIMEK, *Editor*

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted work has been granted to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and to the organization operating under contract with the Office to Education to reproduce documents included in the ERIC system by means of microfiche only, but this right is not conferred to any users of the microfiche received from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Further reproduction of any part requires permission of the copyright owner.

PS 001393

Copyright 1967
Reprinted from Social Education Magazine, Official Journal of the
NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
A Department of the National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036
Price $1.50

Introduction

THROUGH the years the National Council for the Social Studies has tended to be more attractive as a professional organization to the secondary school teacher and the college professor than it has to the elementary school teacher. Perhaps because elementary school teachers have traditionally been concerned with the psychology of the young child and with the development of literacy, they have been inclined to identify with professional organizations that reflect those interests. This has been a matter of some concern to the leadership of the National Council for the Social Studies for a number of years and several significant steps have been taken by the Council to offer more to the teachers of elementary-age pupils. For example, special attention is given to the program of annual meetings to include sections, clinics, and sessions of particular relevance to those who work in elementary schools. A number of the National Council publications, including one yearbook, address themselves to social studies education in the elementary school. The special feature dealing with elementary education in *Social Education* was, therefore, a natural extension of the interest that the Council has had in elementary education for quite some time.

The articles in the supplements discuss topics and problems in ways that will stimulate the thinking of teachers and curriculum workers as they plan social studies programs for pupils of the next decade. Elementary social studies curriculums are currently undergoing substantial review and reform throughout the country. Although there are many unresolved issues and considerable diversity in thought concerning the most desirable directions of new curriculums, there is also a surprising amount of agreement as to the necessary components of sound programs. The need to teach for basic ideas that have high transfer value, the need to teach in ways that encourage reflective and rational thought processes, the need to help pupils learn important skills, and the need to approach social studies topics in realistic ways are a few examples of areas of general agreement among curriculum planners. The supplements are intended to enlarge the body of professional literature reflecting and commenting on new developments in elementary social studies education.

There is a growing volume of evidence from a variety of sources that underscores the important role of the elementary school in acquainting pupils with those learnings embodied in the social studies. Whether one reviews the research on concept formation and attainment, skill development, or the internalization of values, he is struck again and again with the importance attached to the early ages in the development of those learnings. Indeed, the evidence suggests that the quality of the educational experience at the early ages may either retard or enhance subsequent intellectual growth and development. Social studies education can and should be improved at all levels, but improvement at the upper grade levels will be difficult unless there are good beginnings in the elementary school.

The articles in the supplements are designed to communicate to elementary classroom teachers, supervisors, elementary school principals, and curriculum workers responsible for elementary school social studies. The authors represent a variety of backgrounds and experience. Most have had many years of successful experience as elementary classroom teachers and are now supervisors or teachers of teachers. Authors were instructed to write for a specific reading audience but to maintain a sophisticated, scholarly style. Although the articles are written for elementary school practitioners, several are such as to be of interest to social studies teachers at any level.

Each of the four supplements follows somewhat the same organizational format. The first article lays before the reader some of the dimensions of the topic and within that context suggests relevant problems and their implications for elementary education. The second and third articles discuss the topic as applied to the middle and upper grades and the fourth addresses itself to learning resources, activities, and instructional media. The final article concerns itself with overall curriculum implications relating to the focus of the supplement. Within the limitations of the space allowed, this treatment permits a broad and comprehensive discussion of topics.

The addition of the elementary education supplement to *Social Education* would not have been possible without substantial financial support. The idea of a special journal publication had been under consideration by the Council prior to the bequest of Mary G. Kelty, but was deferred because of cost. The Mary G. Kelty Fund, earmarked for the promotion of the interests of elementary teachers, provided the needed funding for the project. We believe that this special feature on elementary social studies is a fitting tribute to the memory of Mary G. Kelty who in her lifetime contributed so much to both elementary education and to the National Council for the Social Studies.

John Jarolimek
University of Washington

Contents

The page numbering of each 16-page unit follows the original page numbering of *Social Education* magazine.

Introduction
John Jarolimek ii

Focus on Concepts

Conceptual Approaches: Their Meaning for Elementary Social Studies
John Jarolimek 534

Introducing Social Studies Concepts in the Primary Grades
Melvin Arnoff 537

Beginning Teachers' Problems in Developing Social Studies Concepts
Agnes M. S. Inn 540

Using Learning Resources in Concept Development
Lloyd Kendall 542

Organizing Concept-Based Curricula
Francis Peter Hunkins 545

Focus on Values

Introduction
John Jarolimek 33

Two Styles of School Talk About Values
William R. Fielder 34

Values and the Primary School Teacher
Bernice J. Wolfson 37

Value Teaching in the Middle and Upper Grades: A Rationale for Teaching But Not Transmitting Values
Melvin Ezer 39

Using Learning Resources in Teaching Values
Gerald M. Torkelson 41

Guaranteeing the Values Component in Elementary School Social Studies
Nancy W. Bauer 43

Focus on Skills

The Role of Skills in Elementary Social Studies
Helen McCracken Carpenter

Skills Teaching in the Primary Grades
John Jarolimek

Building Skills for Social Study in the Middle Grades
O. L. Davis, Jr.

Using Learning Resources in Social Studies Skill Development
Clarence O. Bergeson

Skills in the Elementary School Social Studies Curriculum
Clifford D. Foster

Focus on Individualizing Instruction

The Individual and the Social Studies
Vincent R. Rogers

Individualizing Instruction in the Primary Grades
Lorraine D. Peterson

Providing for Individual Differences: Middle and Upper Grades
W. Linwood Chase

Learning Resources for Individualizing Instruction
Huber M. Walsh

Curriculum Provisions for Individual Differences
Robert Groeschell

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION: THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

focus on concepts

John Jarolimek, *Editor*

BOARD OF ADVISORS

Charlotte Crabtree
Assistant Professor of Education
University of California
Los Angeles, California

Eleanor Graham
Consultant in Social Science
Metropolitan Public Schools
Nashville, Tennessee

Adelene Howland
Director of Elementary Education
Mount Vernon Public Schools
Mount Vernon, New York

Mary Lewis
Elementary Social Studies Supervisor
Cincinnati Public Schools
Cincinnati, Ohio

Jean Matheson
Director of Elementary Education
Sarasota Public Schools
Sarasota, Florida

John D. McAulay
Professor of Elementary Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

John U. Michaelis
Professor of Education
University of California
Berkeley, California

Vincent R. Rogers
Professor of Elementary Education
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Frank Tempest
Elementary Social Studies Teacher
Division of Instructional Services
Denver Public Schools
Denver, Colorado

Gilbert M. Wilson
Chairman, Department of
Elementary Education
Boston University
Boston, Massachusetts

With this issue *Social Education* introduces a new section devoted entirely to elementary education. The inauguration of this feature demonstrates the importance that the Council attaches to social studies education at the elementary level. It is altogether appropriate that special attention be given to the elementary school social studies program because it is here that the child begins his lifetime of study of human societies and human institutions. It is anticipated that these articles will bring increased numbers of teachers and others most closely associated with the conduct of instruction in the elementary school into closer contact with the mainstream of social studies thinking nationally.

A topic or theme has been selected for each supplement, and a series of articles focus on various dimensions of that topic. The supplements are planned to (1) improve the quality of elementary social studies instruction and curriculum in content, skills, and values; (2) develop backgrounds of teachers and stimulate them to further professional study; (3) inform readers of studies, projects, and other significant developments relating to changing emphases in curriculum, methods, and materials; and (4) discuss persistent instructional problems that, by their fundamental nature, necessitate continued attention.

No particular point of view or philosophy is being promoted in the articles; indeed, it is hoped that various viewpoints might be presented in order to stimulate discussion and dialogue. Likewise, it is hoped that authors will represent various professional roles, although this may not be possible in any single supplement. This feature should provide an excellent outlet for publishable material and should, in time, represent a substantial addition to the literature of elementary social studies.

In planning the supplements, ideas were solicited from a number of prominent educators who have had an identification with elementary social studies. The Editor, with the help of a small committee consisting of Dr. Charlotte Crabtree, Miss Mary Lewis, Mr. Frank Tempest, and Dr. John U. Michaelis, incorporated those ideas into a proposed plan for the supplements. The proposal was presented to and approved by the Executive Board of *Social Education*. A Board of Advisors has now been named to assist with planning of the feature on a continuing basis. Members of the Board represent various sections of the country and a variety of professional roles. Their names, positions, and addresses appear on this page. Readers are urged to relay their reactions to the articles, along with ideas for future articles and possible authors, to any member of the Board of Advisors or to the Editor, University of Washington, Seattle.

Conceptual Approaches: Their Meaning for Elementary Social Studies

by JOHN JAROLIMEK

Professor of Elementary Education
University of Washington

AT some point in the remoteness of antiquity, man made a gigantic leap in his development that would forever separate him from all other living creatures. The similarities and differences between man and the universe of living things has been the source of some fascination through the centuries, and many explanations have been suggested for his uniqueness. Unquestionably, the unbridgeable gap between man and the rest of the animal kingdom lies precisely in his capacity to engage in high-order, abstract mental operations facilitated through the use of a complex symbol system. This is not to say that man thinks and animals do not. It is, rather, to suggest that the mental processes of animals and those of man are separated by several orders of magnitude.

Man has the amazing capacity to attach symbols to reality and thereby manipulate reality intellectually. Moreover, he can and does attach symbols to abstractions that do not exist physically at all (terms such as *tradition*, *colonialism*, *democracy*), and he can manipulate those mentally. Man's neurological system is such that it is able to classify, store, retrieve, and process a phenomenal amount of information. Because man has this capacity, he can accumulate and transmit a social heritage. He can also use his intelligence to create and invent new variations of that heritage. He can be taught to solve intensely complex social problems. He can, finally, develop and adapt a culture, something no other creature is able to do.

It is well known that lower animals can be taught or conditioned to respond to words. When trained, a dog, a horse, or a bird will react in a predictable way to a given command. Animals frequently behave in deceptively human-like ways. Because the response is often so well executed, it is sometimes mistakenly assumed that the animal engages in reflective thought, akin to that of human beings. When man responds to symbols, however, he is doing so in an altogether different way from that of a dog, baboon, or talking bird. He does something besides and beyond simply reacting to a sign symbol. Man associates meaning with a symbol, a meaning that goes considerably beyond a sensory impression. When man hears or sees the symbol *concentration camp*, his memory system immediately scans and sorts a vast amount of information and selects the appropriate data to associate with this symbol, thus giving it meaning. This assumes, of course, that the individual has had some prior opportunity to become acquainted with the meaning of this term. But it is not necessary for him to have personally and directly experienced concentration camps in order for this symbol to have meaning for him. He may have read about them, seen pictures of them, heard accounts of persons who had been in them, seen a movie about concentration camps, and so on. When we refer to the meanings associated with words and symbols in this way, we are defining *concepts*. Concepts may be regarded as categories of meaning. Attaching meaning beyond sensory impression to abstract symbols is what is meant by conceptual thought. It is intellectual behavior that is distinctly and uniquely characteristic of human beings.

It is doubtful if anything but the most elementary conceptual thought would be possible without a highly developed symbol system. This is so because concepts are abstract ideas and are detached from specific experiences. In order to handle ideas in this way, it is necessary to have labels or symbols to attach to them. If ideas are to be communicated, there must be common agreement on the meanings of the labels or symbols. Words provide convenient labels for concepts, and, consequently, word-symbols are sometimes confused with the concepts they represent.

Using concepts as categories of meaning makes it possible for man to establish order in all of the many thousands of specific perceptions and unique experiences he has. Concepts provide an intellectual filing system for meanings. Concept development, then, calls for the placing of information in correct cognitive categories. In developing the concept *city*, as an example, pupils must learn to differentiate a city from other political and social entities. A city is not a county; neither is it a village, nor a town, nor a hamlet. Pupils could test the validity of a vast number of statements concerning the characteristics of a city, and in so doing their understanding of the concept would be enlarged, i.e. A city has more people living in it than a village; A city provides opportunities for many types of jobs; A city must have a good transportation system; and so forth. Suppose, however, pupils conclude that "Large cities are not located close to other large cities." A test of this statement would show that there are many exceptions to it. This is not a statement that would correctly apply to all or nearly all cities. It is incorrect information.

When one includes incorrect information in a category, he then forms a *misconception*. Pupils who learn about the English *race* and the French *race* are associating incorrect information with the race concept and are therefore forming misconceptions. It is apparent that in developing concepts it is important for the learner to have a broad exposure to the idea, encountering it in a variety of settings, and experiencing both positive and negative instances and exemplars. Concept development is largely an information sorting, discriminating process, including in the category all associations and relationships that belong and excluding those that do not.

In social studies, concepts are often expressed in the following ways:

1. as *words*—river, mountain, city, urbanism, tradition, culture, democracy, colonialism, migration, import, export, cargo, trade.
2. as *phrases*—cultural diffusion, balance of power, trade agreement, balance of payments, income tax, polar regions, representative government.

In conceptual approaches to social studies curriculum development and teaching, a great deal is made of generalizations—as organizing ideas from the disciplines, main ideas, key ideas, and so on. Sometimes they are also labeled *concepts*, although such nomenclature is not altogether consistent with the conventional and widely accepted use of the term. A generalization is defined as a declarative statement expressing a relationship between concepts or other variables and has more or less universal applicability. The statements describing cities cited earlier are examples of generalizations. Other examples that have been widely used in the social studies are: Every society creates laws; Land is used for many and varied purposes; Change is a condition of human society; Culture is socially learned.

The following generalization from geography may be used to illustrate the relationship between generalizations, concepts, and facts:

> Climate is determined by sunlight, temperature, humidity, precipitation, atmospheric pressure, winds, unequal rates of heating and cooling of land and water surfaces, irregular shape and distribution of land and sea, ocean currents, and mountain systems.

This generalization has imbedded within it a number of concepts that must be understood if the statement is to make sense: sunlight, temperature, humidity, precipitation, atmospheric pressure, winds, and so forth. Moreover, each of the concepts has many specific facts associated with it that give it meaning, as for example: *sunlight*—amount, intensity, composition; *temperature*—variation, change, effects; *winds*—direction, patterns, causes; *humidity*—degree of moisture, dampness, effect on comfort. Concepts and generalizations are transferable from one setting to another. Facts, on the other hand, have no transfer value—they are useful and applicable only in their specific settings: Columbus discovered America in 1492; The Chicago fire took place on October 8, 1871; The Great Depression followed the stock market crash of October 1929. Conceptual approaches are intended to provide a framework or design for the building up of meanings from facts to concepts to generalizations.

It has long been known that social studies programs typically include an overwhelming amount of specific information. Not only is the existing fact-load heavy but the problem is additionally confounded because (1) the amount of specific information is increasing at a rapid rate due to the discovery of new knowledge; (2) specific information is ephemeral and becomes obsolete quickly; (3) the rate of forgetting specific information is known to be high; and (4) unless specifics are tied to larger ideas, it is impossible to establish functional criteria for the selection of facts to be taught. In recent years, therefore, curriculum workers in the social studies have turned their attention to the use of concepts and generalizations as organizing schemes in an attempt to overcome the problems just cited. The basic idea is to focus instruction on a relatively few fundamental concepts that have high transfer value and that help to explain or predict social or natural phenomena. Specific subject matter is selected to illustrate particularly well the concepts under study and to permit the application of certain methods of inquiry.

In principle the use of organizing designs of the type under discussion have been received favorably by educators and social scientists alike. There is considerable agreement that the programs of the past have over-stressed learning goals dealing with the accumulation of information mostly of the descriptive type. Major curriculum revision projects of the past decade have, without exception, given some attention to an emphasis on basic concepts and generalizations. The usual procedure has been to turn to the various parent disciplines contributing to social studies and attempt to identify the core ideas from those disciplines. Numerous social scientists have been involved in the search for and identification of basic concepts from the social sciences, and several lists have been compiled. It is safe to say, however, that to date there are few very good models of social studies programs that incorporate basic concepts from the social science disciplines into functioning

PS 001393

curriculums. Hardly any are markedly different from those of the past. Perhaps more will be available after programs now under development, such as those in Project Social Studies, are reported.

If conceptual approaches are to become the basis for elementary social studies curriculums, something more needs to be done besides simply overlaying a list of concepts from the social sciences on a traditional scope and sequence chart with some minor shifts of content allocations from one grade to another. Likewise, conceptual approaches will not contribute needed vitalization of elementary social studies if conventional methodology is employed. A substantial re-orientation to both content and method will be needed before the real values of conceptually based curriculums can be achieved.

The attention to and development of concepts necessarily suggests an instructional emphasis stressing inquiry and inductive teaching. This is not to suggest that a pupil has to discover everything he needs to know—to do so would mean that he could not profit from the accumulated wisdom of mankind. What is being suggested is that the total approach be investigation oriented—that teachers will *not* write generalizations on the chalkboard for pupils to learn or have them memorize dictionary definitions of concepts. If the emphasis on concept teaching results in practices such as these, our programs will be in a bad way, indeed. Pupils build meanings into concepts by what they themselves do and experience—through a range of encounters with concepts and through the use of a vast amount of supporting detail. Generalizations for the most part should be considered either (1) as tentative conclusions arrived at after lengthy and careful study or (2) as propositions, assumptions, or hypotheses to be tested by study and research.

It seems clear, too, that the role of the teacher in social studies instruction needs to shift from what it has traditionally been. In today's concept-based and inquiry-oriented programs, the teacher simply cannot remain the chief data source for the class. In many, perhaps most, elementary social studies classes, the teacher and the text continue to be the most important information sources, utilizing the conventional *transmitter* (teacher and text)—*receiver* (pupils) teaching model. It is obvious that there is little to be gained in re-writing curriculum documents in social studies if prevailing teaching strategies do not conform either to the philosophical base or the psychological orientation of the new program. The role of the teacher will need to shift to the extent that his behavior has to do *mainly* with stimulating, questioning, clarifying, supporting, providing feedback, guiding, and diagnosing. Because educational technology is making it possible for devices to do many tasks teachers have traditionally performed (providing information, giving assignments, correcting papers), increasingly it will be necessary for teachers to attend to those unique tasks that only human teachers can do.

In the present period of curriculum reform, it has become the accepted custom to insist that elementary teachers have a better knowledge of the subject matter relating to their teaching assignments. This assumed need is often accepted uncritically. Given the current educational climate, emphasis on knowledge of subject matter, however valid such an emphasis may be, tends to encourage traditional information-giving teaching roles.

There can be little question that the elementary teacher of today and tomorrow will need a better background in the social sciences than his counterpart did a generation ago—although not for the reasons ordinarily given. The teacher needs a strong background not to pass the information on to the pupils he teaches but to be able to know what possibilities for investigation inhere in a topic, to know what questions to ask, to know how to test hypotheses, and how to arrive at valid conclusions. The uninformed teacher may not know enough about a topic to be able to plan an extended and soundly-based investigation of it with today's informed and sophisticated pupils.

Additionally, teachers in concept-based programs need to know a great deal about the psychology of cognitive processes and the organization of knowledge itself. How do pupils learn concepts and generalizations? How can knowledge be organized to enhance learning? How can concepts be programed on a continuum of difficulty? What are the relevant concepts from the various disciplines? How does the teacher enhance and assist transfer of learnings? What concepts are particularly appropriate for slow-learning pupils? Are the same procedures for concept development equally valid for slow learners as for average and high-achieving pupils? Questions such as these must be answered before much headway can be made in developing concept-based programs that really work.

A generation ago a prevailing notion in elementary education was that process goals were more important than content goals. This was embodied in the cliché "What pupils learn is less important than how they learn it." Fortunately, we do not go around saying things like that anymore, for we have recognized that in addition to teaching pupils in ways that are educationally and psychologically sound, we also expect them to learn something of substance. There is a lesson in this for current thinking about social studies.

In the shift from traditional content-oriented, descriptive, fact-centered social studies programs to those that are concept based, there is the tendency

(Continued on page 547)

Introducing Social Studies Concepts in the Primary Grades

by Melvin Arnoff

Assistant Professor of Elementary Education
Kent State University

IN THE midst of the curriculum turmoil in social studies can be found the classroom teacher. While others reflect, analyze the old curricular infirmities, and propose new courses of study, she is left holding the educational bag. While the old social studies has been thoroughly denigrated, nothing has appeared to take its place. One can hardly wait for the publication of textbooks incorporating all of the suggested changes, for such a patchwork quilt would satisfy few.

Inaction, however, on the part of teachers and the school is not a realistic alternative. No action is virtually a decision to accept the status quo. In effect it would condone the continuation of practices and content that are professionally condemned as inadequate.

Unfortunately, many primary teachers are content to utilize this era of confusion as an excuse to confine themselves to almost exclusive instruction in language arts and with gaining familiarity with the new math program and other curriculum innovations. This inclination is further supported by lack of a sufficient variety of appropriate materials for social studies instruction and by the lack of pressure from administration to achieve in this curriculum area. The results of reading and math instruction are observable within a relatively short period of time. The ability to read words of a specified difficulty level and to compute utilizing the four major functions are easily stated goals that are tangibly evidenced when reached. But, like most of the real problems facing mankind, the social studies are not so amenable to precise goal-identification and attainment. This does not, therefore, mean that we should avoid instruction in this area. On the contrary, since the goals and their attainment are so elusive, we must organize the curriculum more thoroughly and begin earlier to attain these ends that, in the incidental teaching situation, always seem to slip through our fingers. It is the unanswered social problem that daily greets us on the front pages of our papers. The adults' math and reading skills generally seem to have taken care of themselves. The social problems, however, continue to persist. Our community leaders and the people themselves continue to exhibit gross ignorance in social affairs. Can anyone deny that the new social studies is long past due? Can anyone assert that another area of the curriculum is more important?

And now one must return to the basic problem of the teacher: *What social studies shall my class pursue?* In an effort to explore some practical answers to this question, the remaining sections of this monograph will focus on the three major problem areas: 1) What can children do in primary social studies? 2) What is the direction of changes in the social studies? and 3) What are some practices a concerned primary grade teacher can employ in striving toward the new social studies?

What can children learn in social studies? One of the major factors contributing to discontent with the old social studies has been an emerging conviction that today's children, if not those of ten or twenty years ago, through the varied types of communication to which they are exposed, are capable of assimilating and utilizing much more information and of building rather sophisticated concepts. It has been asserted that primary social studies instruction has been little more than an experience in language; that children, before instruction, knew most of the information they were about to "learn." Loomis found that kindergarten children had knowledge and interests much broader than their curriculum.[1]

McAulay reported that studies of seventy second-grade children indicated that previous to instruction, sixty per cent of them knew many facts about the community and housing, cattle ranches, dairy production, and wheat farms. Most of them could identify one or more duties of the police and firemen.[2]

Not only have studies indicated that children enter the classroom with a rich background of experience and information. They also show that with this base children can be guided to achieve more complex concepts and generalizations. Seventy-five per cent of the second-grade children included in a study by Arnoff were found to have been able to identify correctly

---

[1] Mary J. Loomis. "Some Questions About the Kindergarten Program." Columbus: Ohio State University Center for School Experimentation, 1961. (Mimeographed.)

[2] J. D. McAulay. "Social Studies in the Primary Grades." *Social Education* 18:357-358; December 1954.

fire chief, highway patrol, law, trial, and several other social studies terms before the initiation of instruction in these areas.[3]

Perhaps the more important finding of this study, however, was the fact that seventy-five per cent of the children in grade two, after a five-week period of instruction, were able to comprehend the meanings of *campaign, split ticket, ballot, subpoena, congressman, mint, president, levy, property tax,* and twenty other terms of government.[4]

While it would be possible to cite additional research such as that conducted by Huck, Capper, Davis, Lowry,[5] and others to document the initial position of this paper, some reservations must be stated. Preston questions whether it is advisable to infer from children's expressions of interest what they should learn.[6] Mugge also expressed concern over the depth of the concepts children possess.[7] Do children know the concept or are they using it with only a limited understanding?

Even with these legitimate reservations, it appears that reflection, research, and professional experience unanimously acclaim that the primary grade child is ready to encounter a new variety of social study that he can explore in greater depth. Teachers now must face the problems of what content, what ends, and what means.

What content for the primary grades? The average teacher is not immediately faced with the problem of revamping the social studies curriculum and is therefore more concerned with determining the nature of current social studies instruction. In selecting topics for the primary classroom, it is probably advisable to examine the national scene to determine some of the trends in new content. Although space limits a full treatment here, it is important to indicate that new content is being drawn from the disciplines of anthropology, economics, sociology, political science, as well as from current problems of man and from studies of cultural areas.[8] The diversity of these trends suggests that there emerges no clear-cut philosophy for the development of the total social studies curriculum. Neither is there apparent agreement concerning content priorities nor grade placement. But the drive toward a deeper understanding of the social sciences is evident. The attempt to direct learning toward the consideration of man's most perplexing problems can also be discerned. One is also aware of a trend toward including all cultures, Western and non-Western, within the curriculum.

These, then, are some of the dimensions of the new social studies. While considerable progress has been made on many projects, there will inevitably be a lag between their development and their implementation into the total pattern of social studies instruction. It is at this juncture that the role of the classroom teacher becomes crucial. While the experts analyze and prepare their individually conceived materials, the classroom teacher is in a prime position to experiment and develop a social study appropriate for her class. Neither the central office nor the university professor can tell the primary grade teacher exactly what social study would be best suited to her class or how ready her pupils are to profit from any set of experiences. It is the teacher herself who is in a position to test the hypothesis that children, with well-planned experiences, can comprehend rather sophisticated concepts of the social sciences.

Should the teacher decide to accept the challenge of initiating a new social studies curriculum, rather than wait another few years until one is imposed, what content can she employ without suffering the wrath of fellow staff members who might point a finger and decry that she strays too far? If we recognize that much of the content of the "old social studies" will have to be retained in the "new," we can see the possibility of starting at this point and building new goals into the current framework. This is reasonable because the objection has *not* been that The Family, The School, or The Community are inherently poor topics for study. Rather, it has been alleged that what has been taught was so oversimplified and without purpose that it was meaningless. Let us then examine ways to strengthen the social studies we already have.

In areas where kindergarten children come to school with only a limited background of experience, it seems imperative to provide a wide variety of experiences for them. Not only should these children be taken out of their neighborhoods to other nearby areas but they should also have the opportunity to meet children from other schools—children who have had experiences very different from their own.

Some of the more unusual programs being conducted in concert with the new social studies include studies of Children Around the World for the kindergarten child. Thus children are exposed to people who look different and who live on different parts of the earth. Some classes have even learned how to say a few words in Japanese, Russian, Portuguese, French, or other languages. Certainly songs and games of other nations are both enjoyable and educationally profitable for the young child. In this way the beginning pupil will have commenced learning the shape of his planet, the locations of some nations, the sound of different linguistic forms of communicating, and a variety of other discipline-rooted concepts.

---

[3] Melvin Arnoff. "Adding Depth to Elementary School Social Studies." *Social Education* 28:335-336; October 1964.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 336.

[5] Charlotte Huck. "Children Learn from Their Culture." *Educational Leadership* 13:171-175; December 1955. Antonetta Capper. "Science and Social Studies: Small Beginnings for Four- and Five-Year Olds." *Childhood Education* 35:172-177; December 1958. O. L. Davis, Jr. "Children Can Learn Complex Concepts." *Educational Leadership* 17:170; December 1959. Betty L. Lowry. "A Survey of the Knowledge of Social Studies Concepts Possessed by Second Grade Children Previous to the Time When These Concepts Are Taught in the Social Studies Lessons." Doctoral Thesis, State University of Iowa, 1963.

[6] Ralph C. Preston. "What Social Studies Content for the Primary Grades?" *Social Education* 29:147-148; March 1965.

[7] Dorothy J. Mugge. "Precocity of Today's Young Children: Real or Wishful?" *Social Education* 27:436-439; December 1963.

[8] For a survey of some of the new social studies projects *see* "Report on Project Social Studies." *Social Education* 29: 206-223; April 1965. Dorothy M. Fraser. "Status and Expectations of Current Research and Development Projects." *Social Education* 29:421-434; November 1965.

The facts, however, at all grade levels, must be only the beginning. Children must be guided in the utilization of facts to reach mediated conclusions or generalizations. The techniques for doing this are still being developed by the most capable teachers. Even though our knowledge of this complex process is limited, teachers should, nonetheless, attempt to achieve conceptualization rather than mere factual recall.

Let us see how the common first-grade topics can be enriched in line with current thinking. The pedagogic theory that the child seeks to understand the world in terms of himself and his own experiences has not been seriously challenged; the practice of confining his education to these areas has. Let us, then, start with the child's home. Here one can discover aspects of many, if not all, of the social sciences. The problems must be faced squarely. For instance, the child should know what a family is and why it holds together. Every child should know that a family starts with the marriage of a man and a woman who have offspring. He should know that families can continue in the absence of one or more of the parents, that other relatives may live with the immediate family or even take full charge of raising the children.

A child should know that money must come to the family so that each member can have the necessary food, clothing, and shelter. He should know that at least one member of the family earns this money and that, while it is usually the father, it may be the mother or both parents as well as an older sibling. Some children should also learn that when parents are out of work, the government provides the family money so that they will not go hungry or become cold. In turn it is the responsibility of the citizen to spend that money wisely for the welfare of all the family, not only for any one member. The question of whether or not the adults have an obligation to seek employment should also be discussed.

The rules of the family can be examined to determine what they are and why they are needed. Why are children not allowed to play with matches or why are they forbidden to play baseball in a neighbor's yard? Such are the beginnings of the development of political science concepts of rights, responsibilities, rules, taxes, and laws. In these examples children have a base for the understanding of economic concepts of income, expenditures, and cost. Sociologically they can learn how man organizes to realize his needs, and that the family inheres for emotional, psychological, economic, and religious reasons.

New content in grade one could also include a survey of the variety of houses from shacks to trailers to multi-family dwellings. Because there is an increasing tendency in the newer textbooks to deal with families in a foreign culture, similar topics can be pursued in this context. A project recently completed by the author provides an extensive resource guide to materials and activities on Families in Japan.[9] Guides such as these can be very useful to the innovative teacher.

The traditional topics in grade two are the community, community helpers, transportation, food, clothing, and shelter. These topics can be fruitfully expanded in many ways. As indicated earlier, children have some information concerning the policeman and the fireman. But they do not know that they are public servants, that some of the taxes paid by adults pay these men for doing tasks needed by the whole community. Studies of the local area provide excellent opportunities to introduce children to elementary concepts from both political science and economics. For example, numerous illustrations of the economic principle of division of labor and consequent production can be found in the local community.

The topic of transportation hardly deserves its traditional emphasis. Surely it is not mandatory that every child know the engine, the caboose, the flat car, and so on of the railroad. But transportation is important in terms of economics, government, and sociology. With competent teaching, children can easily comprehend that the movement of goods from one place to another contributes to its economic value and potential utilization. Similarly, they can begin to understand the essential and vital role of transportation in modern life.

Content in the third grade is a bit more diverse than it is for the kindergarten and grades one and two. Nevertheless, the principle of adding new depth within the framework of our old curriculum pattern still applies. If a class studies early Indians or pioneer life, the teacher can aid them in seeing the viewpoint of the Indian to learn why he fought the

(Continued on page 548)

---

[9] Melvin Arnoff. "Families in Japan." (A four- to six-week resource unit for children in the second half of grade one.) Kent, Ohio: Kent State University, June 1966.

Beginning Teachers' Problems in Developing Social Studies Concepts

by AGNES M. S. INN

Associate Professor of Education
University of Hawaii

IN THE past decade curriculum planning for elementary social studies has focused on the development of important concepts selected from the social sciences. Whether or not such programs will actually function depends on the extent to which elementary teachers understand them and can implement them in their classes. This paper is based on a study conducted in selected elementary schools in Hawaii during the 1964-65 school year to explore problems encountered by beginning teachers in implementing a concept-based social studies curriculum.[1] Sixty teachers in grades 1 through 6 served as subjects for the study. Data were obtained by visits to the classrooms, conferences and interviews with the teachers and their supervisors, and written responses by the subjects. The teachers in this study were guided in the selection of major concepts and generalizations to be developed in the social studies units they were to teach. These were expressed as "main ideas," and the units of study were planned to lead pupils to an understanding of those main ideas.

Children's acquisition of social studies concepts depends in part on their teacher's ability to provide a sequence of learning experiences that leads them to an increasing awareness of the meanings of ideas central to the topic under study. Instruction geared to concept development is thus a planned, systematic program based on (1) an analysis of the specific conceptual objectives for each study or unit of instruction, (2) an appraisal of children's ability to handle these objectives, and (3) the provision of learning experiences based on this analysis.

Specific conceptual objectives determine the scope and sequence of the particular study being undertaken. The identification and analysis of these objectives is an essential prerequisite to selecting and sequencing of learning experiences. This task calls for a sophisticated knowledge of content extending beyond that found in children's textbooks and related materials. Such knowledge is essential because it ensures that the instruction will focus on relevant concepts instead of stressing inconsequential detail. Moreover, a solid knowledge of the topic under study enables the teacher to be more skillful and imaginative in planning related learning experiences. The skillful teacher is not only concerned with providing a sequence of learning experiences but, more importantly, with selecting those experiences that are appropriate and pertinent both to the development of the concept and to the particular group of children.

The task of providing a sequence of learning experiences that leads to the conceptual objective is not an easy one. This investigation revealed that the *chief* difficulty encountered by the teachers had to do with selecting and providing relevant learning experiences for pupils. Relating specific learning activities to the attainment of specific concepts and generalizations proved to be particularly bothersome. This difficulty was noted repeatedly in the logs kept by the teachers and in those kept by their supervisors. It was revealed again in their plans, expressed in private conferences, and observed during their teaching. These sample reactions from the teachers illustrate their concerns:

1. Selecting sequential activities, each related to the main idea.
2. Selecting the best activity to lead pupils to the main idea.
3. Using a variety of activities; doing something besides discussion.
4. Maintaining a balance of activities between reading-type and doing-type and between small-group and large-group endeavors.
5. Clarifying the purposes of activities for pupils.
6. Conducting discussions without having pupils become restless.
7. Formulating thought questions to guide pupils during discussion.
8. Wording questions in a way pupils understand what is wanted.
9. Relating facts and specifics to main ideas in discussions.

An analysis of the expressed difficulty of these beginning teachers, namely, selecting suitable learning experiences for pupils, provides us with some valuable insights into the complexities of guiding concept development. First, the teachers' own grasp of the particular concept or generalization is critical. It is not simply a matter of possessing sufficient content background that supports and clarifies the concept; it is equally necessary to have a grasp of the dimensions of meaning or levels of abstraction of a particular concept.

---

[1] Agnes M. S. Inn. "An Investigation to Explore Ways of Helping Intern Teachers Analyze and Use Conceptual Objectives." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1966.

In planning, the teacher must be able to analyze a concept into component elements and must also be able to arrange such elements on a continuum of difficulty. This is not possible unless he has some depth of understanding of the concept himself. The teachers' limitations in this respect were observed in two ways. They had difficulty in analyzing the conceptual objective in terms of levels of complexity. Teachers tended to perceive the "understanding of a concept" as an all or nothing affair rather than as developmental and continuous. Observation of their teaching revealed also that they often did not recognize the children's statement of the generalization because it was not couched in the language of the teacher or expressed in the way he believed was correct. It was apparent that the teachers were not fully aware of the dimensions of meaning or levels of abstraction of concepts and generalizatons and, therefore, encountered difficulty in guiding concept development.

Second, clues that suggest appropriate learning activities are often overlooked because teachers do not realize that a conceptual objective itself may suggest leads to suitable pupil experiences. For example, one of the conceptual objectives identified for a unit on Japan by a sixth grade teacher was "The physical features of Japan influence the ways of living in that country." This relationship can be more readily understood if pupils have had some experience with its application to situations with which they are presently familiar. This suggests the possibility of a field study beginning with observation and identification of physical features found in the children's own environment and relating these to occupations and other aspects of living. Using this concrete experience as a foundation, the class can now move into intensive map study and related research on how the people of Japan, or any other part of the world, are influenced or affected by the physical features found there. Learning experiences for this conceptual objective could have been limited to reading about physical features and their effect on people's lives. But such an experience is a mature and advanced way of dealing with this idea. Preliminary to an encounter with it at this level of abstraction, the pupil should have experienced it in a more familiar and fundamental form and context.

Third, the teachers' comments clearly suggest that their search for learning experiences that are varied, interesting, and meaningful was often done without sufficient concern for the conceptual objective to be developed. They tended to want learning experiences that were exciting and different, but they rarely tied this search to the objective. The beginning teachers in the study made a conscientious effort to include learning experiences other than the conventional ones such as reading books, viewing films and filmstrips, and discussion.

The desire to seek and use varied and interesting learning experiences is in itself commendable. But unless such experiences and activities are directed to the attainment of specific objectives, additional difficulties will be encountered. For example, a fourth grade teacher employed role-playing activities for each major concept in a series of units contrasting ways of living in various parts of the world. This teacher appeared not to sense the inappropriateness of this activity as a means of extending pupils' understanding of certain concepts. Nor did the pupils' responses suggest to her that the activity was not achieving its intended purpose. It was evident that she was not sensitive to feedback from the pupils. Another teacher used drawing as the chief method of having children express their grasp of the major idea in their study. There was little apparent concern for the appropriateness of this "interesting" technique to the conceptual objective under study. She was seemingly not alert to the children's difficulty in reducing complex ideas to pictorial representations. Time and again teachers in the study found themselves in a pattern of seeking interesting and varied learning experiences without examining them for their applicability and appropriateness to the objective and to the children.

Fourth, teachers' reliance on discussion throughout the development of a unit study needs to be re-evaluated. The enlightened use of discussion is, of course, well established as a desirable learning activity. Nonetheless, when the discussion technique is indiscriminately employed and pupil contributions naively accepted, the opportunities for learning inaccurate conceptions and mistaken information are ever present. Too often the purpose of a discussion was not clear either to the pupils or the teacher. Consequently, the experience became a recitation by the more verbal children or a dialogue between a particular child and the teacher. Frequently the teacher asked questions that supplied children with answers or questions requiring one-word answers. In either case, there was little if any need for a discussion. Many teachers, apparently, do not realize that discussions are of various types—that the learning being sought at the particular time influences the type of discussion to employ. This study suggests unmistakably that teachers need greater skill in framing questions that stimulate discussion.

Observations of discussion periods where children

(Continued on page 548)

Using Learning Resources in Concept Development

by LLOYD KENDALL

Associate Professor of Education
San Diego State College

VIEWING a glacier at the mountain ridge or taking a trip through a paper mill provides the learner with added dimensions of real phenomena. Teachers cannot always provide such direct, first-hand experiences to ensure proper conceptual development in the social studies. However, there is much a teacher can do for pupils within the very environs of the classroom to enrich meanings of social studies concepts.

Research in the theory of learning and the explosion in the variations of learning resources mandate the use of a multimedia approach to concept development. A multiplicity of learning resources are now available, and they must be utilized if pupils are to grasp the meanings of the many concepts that inundate the social studies curriculum. The day of a single approach, relying solely on the textbook as the source of authority, is passed. It is no longer sufficient for pupils to "read" or for the teacher to "tell" pupils about concepts and assume that learning and understanding are taking place. The inadequacy of using the social studies textbook as the sole learning tool in conceptual development was reported in a study by Manolakes.[1] Among the major weaknesses he reported were the following: (1) Textbooks tend to verbalize concepts rather than to present materials that would contribute to the development of concepts; (2) Concepts are treated in such a way as to suggest that they are a secondary or incidental consideration; and (3) Concepts are not adequately reinforced after initial presentation.

The teacher must therefore reach out beyond the textbook and include the use of a broad spectrum of learning resources as he works with his pupils. The familiar materials such as books, films, field trips, maps, and so forth have specific functions in the social studies. Additionally, less conventional resources such as folklore, the Spokesman, drama, television, and museums also contribute immeasurably to concept development. Examples of various learning resources and how they contribute to concept development are examined in this article.

Concept development is a continuous process that requires the pupil to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate his experiences. Ideally, a teacher utilizes varied learning resources to promote intellectual activity required for concept development. The opportunity for diverse experiences in varied contexts, designed to fix or clarify the more abstract meanings of concepts, is essential to conceptual development. Concepts for which the pupil has no direct reference or prior experience on which to draw, such as *loyalty* or *democracy*, are particularly singled out as ones requiring careful selection and use of learning resources. Social studies content is heavily laden with concepts that are difficult to classify by drawing on prior knowledge or experiences. The challenge is clear—teachers must provide contrived experiences, utilizing learning resources that are best suited to introduce or reinforce concepts essential for building generalizations.

TEXTBOOKS Despite its limitations, the textbook serves as a basic learning resource in the social studies curriculum. It provides the launching pad for introductory experiences in concept development. The textbook establishes a point of reference from which other learnings can develop. Textbooks should be carefully scrutinized to ensure that the book selected for use is compatible with the educational philosophy and approach to instruction followed in the school district.

TRADEBOOKS AND REFERENCE BOOKS Tradebooks and reference books are necessary learning resources that augment and supplement the basic text. These books extend understanding and give increased meaning to discussions of institutions, objects, and experiences. The amount of material in this category of learning resources is plentiful. Because of increased financial support from federal sources, elementary school libraries are expanding at a rapid rate.

Tradebooks provide the teacher with a vast reservoir from which to select material suitable for introduction or clarification of concepts. Picture books and books written with simple or mature vocabulary are available in abundance. Keeping abreast of current tradebooks presents a formidable task for teachers, librarians, curriculum specialists, and administrators. Several sources that provide excellent reviews of tradebooks and specify grade classification and subject area are listed below.[2]

---

[1] George Manolakes. "Concept Development in Social Studies Textbooks." *The National Elementary Principal* 37:25-27; May 1958.

Reference books such as enclyclopedias, almanacs, and yearbooks provide pupils with a variety of factual information. These sources can be used by teachers and pupils to check and verify conceptual levels of understanding. The validity of data and the reliability of various sources of information can be examined and evaluated. Using reference books under careful teacher guidance, pupils can analyze, synthesize, and evaluate understandings at the conceptual level appropriate to each individual learner.

MAPS AND GLOBES Maps and globes are visual teaching aids that can be used singly or collectively to promote concept development. A guiding principle in the use of these learning resources is that of pupil participation. Pupils need many experiences in handling and using these materials on a first-hand basis. Such planned experiences should begin with the child's first formal educational program in the primary grades.

Geographical and historical concepts are vitalized when presented with the use of maps and globes. These resources may be used (1) to portray changes that have occurred on the earth's surface and to depict political changes that have occurred in man's recorded history; (2) to enrich the current events program; (3) to assist pupils in understanding the particular area under study—altitudes, transportation routes, rain-fall, population density, and other specifics; and (4) to place events in chronological order for an accurate study in history. For a more comprehensive and detailed discussion of the use of maps and globes, the teacher is referred to *The Rand McNally Handbook of Map and Globe Usage*.[3]

GRAPHS AND CHARTS Graphs and charts are appropriate tools for presenting social studies information quickly and effectively. Children should be encouraged to construct graphs and charts to visually illustrate comparisons, trends, and relationships. Teachers are reminded to emphasize simplicity and aim at approximations when treating data. The chief purpose in using this resource is to present comparative, quantitative information quickly and simply.

PICTURES AND ILLUSTRATIONS Pictures and illustrations provide accurate and attractive visual representation to complement and enrich learning. To realize the full potential of the picture as a learning resource, children must be taught picture-reading skills. These skills include: (1) Literal picture reading—recognizing objects pictured as two-dimensional symbols and enumerating all the objects seen in a picture; (2) Interpretive picture reading—making simple interpretations of the incident pictured and relating the events to personal experience; and (3) Critical picture reading—examining the validity of events or objects pictured and generalizing from the data presented in the graphic.

Once children gain competence in the skill of picture reading, photographs and illustrations contained in the text or presented by the teacher take on new, added dimensions. Pupils see things in pictures that they had previously overlooked. Cultural concepts are broadened from a study of pictures illustrating how inhabitants of an area occupy the land, how the people look, what foods they eat, how they dress, and the types of homes in which they live. To present this same information in printed context alone would be a difficult task—when illustrations and photographs supplement printed material, more accurate concepts are assured. Concepts about natural phenomena are likewise made more meaningful when illustrated with pictures. Such physical features as mountains, valleys, glaciers, and rivers are more easily understood. Children can learn a great deal about the geography and history of a region by utilizing their picture-reading skills.

MOTION PICTURES AND FILMSTRIPS Projected learning resources such as the motion picture and the filmstrip are of particular value in instances where conceptual development depends on the illusion of motion, sequential presentation of information, or dramatic presentation. These resources are popular with pupils because they combine learning with pleasure—a feature that should not be underestimated. Motion pictures and filmstrips provide opportunities for teachers and pupils to probe deeply into selected subjects. These resources can clarify and make meaningful those concepts that are difficult to master with only verbal or symbolized experiences. The visual impact is particularly important for pupils with reading handicaps. They can profit from the visual and audio transmission of information.

The filmstrip has definite assets when viewed individually by pupils because the learner can control the rate of exposure. He can manipulate and adjust the film to meet his own learning needs. This flexibility makes the filmstrip a particularly valuable resource for use in concept development. Segments of the filmstrip can be used by individual pupils, small groups, or the entire class for review, supplementary learning, drill, or special projects.

---

[2] Curriculum Advisory Service, Inc. 823 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60605. Muriel Crosby. *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*. Fourth Edition. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1963. Helen Huus. *Children's Books to Enrich the Social Studies for the Elementary Grades*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1961. Mary Hill Arbuthnot. *Children and Books*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1964. Charlotte Huck and Doris Young. *Children's Literature in the Elementary School*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961. Nancy Larrick. *A Teacher's Guide to Children's Books*. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1964.

[3] Ruby M. Harris. *The Rand McNally Handbook of Map and Globe Usage*. New York: Rand McNally and Company, 1960.

A group of educators in San Diego, California, has been experimenting with filmstrips accompanied by sound tapes.[4] The tape is recorded at the scene where the frame is photographed. This combination of audio and visual impressions has proven to be successful as part of a unit on community workers. Pupils hear as well as see what goes on at the telephone company, post office, and electric power plant. This San Diego group hopes to expand the program of "filmstrip trips" designed to add enrichment to the social studies curriculum.

OVERHEAD PROJECTIONS Improvements in the design of overhead projectors and the wealth of instructional material available for use with this learning resource make its use in social studies education imperative. The excellent selection of transparencies available through commercial agencies can be supplemented by those produced by local audio-visual departments. Concepts of how the United States has grown can be demonstrated in an effective and picturesque manner. Beginning with a basic outline map showing the country's east and west boundaries represented by the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, the teacher can use colored markers to indicate periods in the nation's growth. The Louisiana Purchase, Florida Purchase, and Western movement can be illustrated using different colors. Activities of this type are forceful, and they offer the pupil the advantage of visual retention after the lesson is over.

BULLETIN BOARDS Bulletin boards can be valuable aids in helping pupils build social studies concepts. They can be used to present concrete information, introduce a particular study area, show contrasts or comparisons, illustrate a point, or summarize a unit. Children should be encouraged to help with the preparation of bulletin boards. They can gather and display pictures, objects, reports, and newspaper stories about specific areas. The manipulative freedom offered by this resource provides the teacher with a learning tool of great value.

THE ARTS AS LEARNING RESOURCES In addition to making imaginative use of conventional learning resources, creative teachers utilize a variety of other resources and activities to strengthen pupil understanding in the social studies. *Creative dramatics* in the primary grades and *informal dramatization* in the middle and upper grades have been widely used to develop interest, to illustrate concepts, to evaluate learnings, and to add reality to situations. Similarly, *music* and *folk dancing* can be used to enrich the social studies program.

Some teachers find *paintings* to be useful learning resources. Through careful study, children are guided to develop insights into human relations and a feeling for the period or situation represented. This resource can include paintings from other countries to aid in conceptual development about foreign lands.

Folklore is also suggested as a valuable learning resource. It is uniquely well suited for study of a particular geographical area such as a region or state. Folklore has cultural and aesthetic value in addition to being a vehicle to be used for concept development. These materials are often available through local museum sources and historical libraries.

INNOVATIONS IN LEARNING RESOURCES Technology has provided the modern social studies classroom with a number of new learning resources—educational television, recorders, single concept films, and others. One such product of modern technology is the *Spokesman*. It can greatly expand opportunities for bringing resource persons into the classroom. The Spokesman operates through an ordinary telephone instrument connected to a speaker that amplifies both sides of the conversation so that it can be heard by everyone in the room. Small groups or an entire class can talk directly to experts in industry, government, or any field under study. Resource persons—public servants, artists, performers, professional people, and busy executives—can contribute to the classroom without leaving their offices. Complete information on the Spokesman can be obtained from any local telephone company.

Social studies education is on the verge of greatly expanded use of learning resources. Good instructional material is available on disc and tape recordings. Educational television presents many possibilities for enriching social studies and in certain sections of the country is already an important part of social studies instruction. Instructional kits consisting of cultural artifacts, reproductions of historical documents, models, and other realia are becoming more widely used in classes employing inductive teaching procedures. Instructional resources for slow learners and culturally disadvantaged, while not in great abundance presently, are appearing in increased quantity. High quality visual materials of all types—maps, charts, diagrams, photographs, illustrations—provide the teacher with an excellent selection of learning resources for concept development.

Learning resources, however, only present opportunities for good teaching and sound learning. No matter what the quality of the material or how abundantly plentiful it may be, it has no impact on instruction unless used by an enlightened teacher. If concept development depends on breadth of experience and if teachers apply what is known about individual differences in learners, sound social studies instruction must employ a multimedia approach to ensure adequate concept development.

---

[4] San Diego Unified School District, Park and El Cajon, San Diego, California.

Organizing Concept-Based Curricula

by Francis Peter Hunkins

Assistant Professor of Education
University of Washington

THE knowledge of factual information, an objective of instruction, is undergoing adjustment in educational thinking. Presently, concern is centered on how one deals with facts. This concern applies to the social studies. Harrison and Solomon's[1] review of social studies research revealed several trends: a) a trend toward the development of sequential curricula so that a year's course would be constructed on concepts and skills that had been introduced previously, b) a trend toward elimination of much repetition that exists in social studies, c) the use of area-depth studies, d) a greater employment of readings, case studies, and primary sources, e) the acquainting of pupils with social scientists' methods of inquiry, f) an emphasis on thinking and critical analysis, and g) an emphasis on the affective dimension of learning in addition to the cognitive. Fraser,[2] in reporting on the status and expectations of current research in social studies, presented further evidence to support the existence of these trends.

This paper is concerned with one trend, the development of curricula based on concepts. This trend has great potential for bringing depth into pupils' understanding of the social studies. But what is a concept? As defined by Morrissett,[3] a concept is an abstraction, an idea generalized from a particular case. A concept can be considered as a map that links together certain facts and phenomena into a meaningful classification. Because concepts serve to "pull together" phenomena, they can very well serve as the "glue" that can hold together curricular elements. Feigl[4] defined a concept as a generalized notion about objects or ideas.

But how does one organize a curriculum based on concepts? Senesh[5] provided a guide in discussing "The Organic Curriculum." He advocated an introduction of all concepts in the first grade. This demands that the curriculum expert, along with the appropriate scholars, would need to carefully consider what concepts are basic and necessary to include in the curriculum. This approach presupposes that all concepts can be taught at the primary grade level. The "Organic Curriculum," as Senesh terms it, necessitates an orchestration of the curriculum in that fundamental concepts would be taught with increasing depth and complexity at each grade level, with various concepts receiving emphasis at the differing levels. A program developed along these lines would be life-long, not a crash program.

The New York Board of Education[6] has advocated a similar approach to concept development in the social studies curriculum. Concepts, introduced in kindergarten, are developed with increasing complexity at each succeeding grade level through grade twelve. The New York Board recognizes concepts as assisting the pupil in developing a cohesive picture of his social world. Knowledge (i.e. subject matter) in such a curriculum is utilized to add sophistication to conceptual understandings. The State Boards of Education of California[7] and Wisconsin[8] also have advocated curricula that stress concepts spiraling toward increasing levels of complexity.

Various other projects located throughout the country add further testimony to the present concern with concept-oriented curricula. The Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland[9] is engaged in constructing the Greater Cleveland Social Science Program. The Cleveland program is not advocating any one way of teaching but is emphasizing the need to develop concepts and generalizations sequentially. At the K-2 level, this program recommends a laying of a sound foundation of correct value judgments and an introduction of basic facts and concepts in geography, economics, and political science. The programs for grades 3 and 4 call for an emphasis on concepts relating to technology and production in the free world. Grades 5 and 6, programs presently under development, are to employ the principle of area study in an attempt to coordinate and relate all essential social sciences concepts.

---

[1] Sylvia E. Harrison and Robert J. Solomon. "Review of Research in the Teaching of Social Studies, 1960-1963." *Social Education* 28:277-292; May 1964.

[2] Dorothy M. Fraser. "Status and Expectations of Current Research and Development Projects." *Social Education* 29:421-434; November 1965.

[3] Irving Morrissett. "The New Social Science Curricula." *Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula.* Publication No. 121 (Preliminary) of the Social Science Education Consortium. March 1966. pp. 1-8.

[4] Herbert Feigl. "Concepts and the Structure of Knowledge." *Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula.* Publication No. 121 (Preliminary) of the Social Science Education Consortium. March 1966. pp. 9-19.

[5] Lawrence Senesh. "Organizing a Curriculum Around Social Science Concepts." *Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula.* Publication No. 121 (Preliminary) of the Social Science Education Consortium. March 1966. pp. 10-37.

[6] Board of Education of the City of New York. *Curriculum and Materials* 20:1-7; Fall 1965.

[7] *Social Studies Framework for the Public Schools of California.* Sacramento, California: California State Department of Education, 1962.

[8] *A Conceptual Framework for the Social Studies in Wisconsin Schools.* Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1964.

[9] Raymond English, director. *Handbook for Social Science Teachers.* Cleveland: Educational Research Council of Greater Cleveland, 1965. 84 pp.

Not all programs are concerned with the entire panorama of concepts; some have attempted to dispose concepts into major categories. The Providence Social Studies Curriculum Study[10] exemplifies this. The director, Ridgway F. Shinn, Jr., has organized concepts at the elementary level around culture within a geography framework and at the secondary level around civilization within history.

Educational Services Incorporated[11] is developing a curriculum based on the concept of man. The E.S.I. program at the elementary level is organized around five great humanizing forces: tool-making, language, social organization, child rearing practices, and man's attempts to explain the world in which he lives. Emphasis is on discovering in depth what makes man human rather than animal.

Price[12] has suggested the utilization of social science concepts and workways as a basis for curriculum revision. Objectives of the study are concerned with selecting from the social sciences and allied disciplines major concepts that will afford pupils increased understanding. The workways considered in this project represent the organizational principles and methods of inquiry unique to each discipline. This approach stresses methodological concepts; abstractions exercised by the social scientist in his discussion of methodology. A team of scholars and educators are writing various position papers from which are being abstracted the concepts deemed important.

Much of the organized attention to concepts in the social studies curricula is focused on specific disciplines at the secondary level. Even though these programs are not directly related to the elementary school, they do provide ideas and leads for those responsible for designing elementary social studies curricula. The concepts deemed important by the High School Geography Project,[13] directed by Helburn, could, it seems, be easily introduced in the elementary grades. In fact, if such concepts as map representation, region, man-land relations, and spatial relations are systematically taught at the elementary level, an even greater depth of understanding will be attainable at the secondary level. Concepts that specifically relate to history, as well as the other social sciences, are the concern of a program at Amherst College[14] under the directorship of Edwin Rozwenc. This project has taken a somewhat unique approach to curriculum development in that it is producing, in collaboration with a publishing firm, a series of volumes designed specifically to supplement teaching. Each volume is organized around key concepts applicable to a particular historical situation.

These various new programs in the social studies are encouraging, indeed. Social studies education is not to be a meaningless accumulation of facts but rather a study of basic concepts relevant to an understanding of man in his world. These programs do not in all cases advocate a specific method or approach to curriculum construction. This is to the advantage of the curriculum planner. One can be engaged in the subject-centered curriculum, the broad-fields curriculum, the experience curriculum, or the core curriculum and still give additional depth and meaning to content by a consideration of basic concepts.

If curriculum planning is to be concept-oriented, it must itself have a conceptual framework that exhibits coherency and consistency. A relationship must exist among objectives, content, methods, and evaluation. If concepts are to be the "glue" of the social studies, then educators must relate these concepts to the objectives. They must also ascertain that the content and experiences add depth to the conceptual understandings and that the methods encourage pupils to search for concepts and generalizations. Finally, they must evaluate to see that the objectives for concept-development are achieved.

Taba[15] iterated that concept development can be considered the basic form of cognition on which all other cognitive processes depend. This statement indicates that attention to concepts is paramount. She conducted a study to examine the development of thought under optimum training conditions: 1) a curriculum designed for thought development, 2) teaching strategies that focused on mastery of cognitive skills, and 3) a sufficient time allotment to permit developmental sequence in training. The thought processes, or cognitive tasks, demanded that attention be given 1) to grouping and classification of information that can be termed concept formation, 2) to application of known principles and facts in attempts to interpret new phenomena, and 3) to data interpretation and inference making. Taba's work, besides lending insights into concepts in the curriculum, also stresses the important role of the teacher in curriculum development.

---

[10] Ridgway F. Shinn, Jr. "Geography and History as Integrating Disciplines." *Social Education* 28:395-400; November 1964.

[11] Jerome S. Bruner. "Man: A Course of Study." *E.S.I. Quarterly Report.* Watertown, Massachusetts: Educational Services Incorporated. Summer-Fall 1965. pp. 85-95.

[12] Roy A. Price. "Social Science Concepts and Workways as the Basis for Curriculum Revision." *Social Education* 29:218-220; April 1965.

[13] Nicholas Helburn, *director. High School Geography Project.* Boulder, Colorado: University of Colorado. *In* Gilbert F. White. "Geography in Liberal Education." *Geography in Undergraduate Liberal Education.* Washington, D.C.: Association of American Geographers, 1965. pp. 14-17.

[14] Edwin C. Rozwenc, *director. Basic Concepts in History and Social Sciences.* Amherst, Massachusetts: Amherst College. *In* Dorothy M. Fraser. "Status and Expectations of Current Research and Development Projects." *Social Education* 29: 425; November 1965.

[15] Hilda Taba, *et al. Thinking in Elementary School Children.* U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Cooperative Research Project No. 1574. San Francisco: San Francisco State College, 1964. 207 pp. (Mimeographed)

The planning, organizing, and implementing of a curriculum represents a cooperative effort of many individuals. For an effective concept-based social studies program to evolve, it is necessary to involve appropriately several groups of professionals: the scholars, the educators, the curriculum specialists, the supervisors, the administrators, and the teachers. The scholars in the related disciplines should be responsible for selecting or identifying those concepts important for pupils' understanding. It is the role of the curriculum specialist to coordinate what the scholar deems appropriate and what the elementary supervisor and teacher accept as educationally sound. The curriculum specialist understands the entire school curriculum design and is therefore a key person in ensuring sequential planning from one level to another. The teacher, too, must be actively involved in the organization of a concept-based curriculum, for it is he who will be responsible for converting the theory into concrete teaching-learning experiences. The role of the supervisor in such a curriculum is to expedite classroom-level planning and to assist teachers in implementing a program that ensures an emphasis not on unrelated facts but on the concepts that unite facts into frameworks of meaning.

Finally, and most importantly, one must not forget the child for whom the curriculum is organized. The goals of the curriculum must be considered in relation to expected desired behaviors, the growth in knowledge, the emergence of values and beliefs, the motivation, and the skills at problem solution.[10] Presently, scholars, educators, and curriculum planners are engaging in attempts to improve the entire scope of learning experiences. Pupils are being provided opportunities that will make learning meaningful and exciting. The concept-based curriculum in the social studies is part of this attempt to make pupils better qualified for participation in a world that will place heavy demands on their rational abilities.

---

[10] Irving Sigel, "Concepts, Structure and Learning," *Concepts and Structure in the New Social Science Curricula*, Publication No. 130 (Preliminary) of the Social Science Education Consortium, March 1966, pp. 82-88.

CONCEPTUAL APPROACHES: THEIR MEANING FOR ELEMENTARY SOCIAL STUDIES

(Continued from page 526)

again to assume that specific content is not especially important as long as it is representative and that it provides a good vehicle for the development of concepts. This may be a valid assumption from the standpoint of instruction. A child *can* develop such concepts relating to family life as role, status, and sanctions, for example, by studying a primitive Indian family of South America. Or a pupil *can* learn about social stratification by studying an Oriental society. But in making the selection of specific content to be used in developing concepts, it would seem important to bear in mind that there is a body of informational content that is necessary for ordinary civic and social literacy. It would be well to remember, too, that society has institutional expectations regarding social studies and elementary schools—there are some things pupils are expected to know when they complete the elementary school. Perhaps on a common-sense basis one might conclude that it is more relevant for American school children to learn something about the social forces operating in their own community than to engage in a depth study of a pre-literate society in a remote part of the world. To have social studies programs designed to build basic concepts does not mean that topics selected for study need to be unusual, unique, or esoteric. There is no reason why elementary social studies programs cannot combine the development of basic concepts *and* the building of backgrounds of functional information *and* appropriate processes of thought.

When man substitutes impulsive, emotional, and thoughtless action for behavior that has resulted from the exercise of rational, reflective, thoughtful processes, he is not behaving in accordance with those characteristics that set him apart from other animals. All of education, and particularly the social studies, should strive to enhance and promote in pupils those qualities from which man derives his humanness. This is a highly relevant concern for elementary teachers because of the nature of the child during the time he is in the elementary school. Pupils in the elementary school today will in a few years be adult citizens of their communities, holding offices, voting, serving on school boards, advising their elected officials, and making decisions individually and collectively on social and civic affairs. Conceptual approaches to social studies education, supported by compatible teaching procedures, tempered by the good sense and patience of an understanding and psychologically warm teacher, should assist pupils to learn how to come to grips with the realities of social and civic affairs in thoughtful, intelligent, and rational ways.

INTRODUCING SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

(Continued from page 539)

white man. One might even wish to broach the problem of the status of the Indian in our society today. Should the curriculum call for a study of one's own city or town, there would be ample opportunity to explore questions such as "Why was our town settled here?" or "If we were starting a town today, would we start it in the same place?" or "Why did our town (not) grow?"

The teacher who wishes to expand the present social studies curriculum of her school in line with these recommendations can probably make a most significant contribution to the field. Because even the best curricula remain paper-bound unless animated by the skillful, dedicated teacher, it seems only appropriate that the teacher now assume the leadership role in the social studies. Her insights and contributions in developing new approaches will be of great value to the school district when it begins to tackle the problems of social studies curriculum development.

Methods in the new social studies. The good teacher cannot be deluded by the critics, for she is continually reminded of the importance of appropriate teaching strategy. In general, the effectiveness of methods can be judged only in terms of the extent to which they enable one to achieve the desired educational goals. At the very least, teachers seek to motivate pupils to conduct their own learning and to desire to comprehend the world around them.

If there are new methods in the social studies, they are pointed at the attainment of greater depth of understanding. Organizing instruction in terms of the integrated learning experience, known as the unit, still appears to be the most promising approach for motivating pupils and interrelating the social sciences. But the teacher needs new and sophisticated teaching skills in leading children to greater depth in their unit studies.

Recapitulation. While experimental work continues on the development of new patterns for elementary social studies, the primary grade teacher can launch her own explorations of social education, thereby engaging in what can be an exciting adventure in learning for her pupils. The current curriculum in most schools provides many opportunities for the teacher to move in the direction of emphases suggested by the new developments in social studies. There is little need for today's primary grade teacher to serve as the chief distributor of textual dosages. The concern for the development of conceptual understanding seems to characterize new views of social studies education. This article has provided a few leads to the teacher who is interested in extending pupils' learning beyond that encompassed by the traditional curriculum. The imaginative and creative teacher will have little difficulty in discovering many more strategies for guiding pupils to a deeper analysis and understanding of their social studies.

BEGINNING TEACHERS' PROBLEMS IN DEVELOPING SOCIAL STUDIES CONCEPTS

(Continued from page 541)

were to draw conclusions, to generalize, or to demonstrate their grasp of the objective, revealed that this type of discussion was most difficult. Reaching for the idea often consisted of the teacher presenting a series of leading questions to the pupils. As pupils responded to the questions, the teacher rejected those responses that did not answer the question. The procedure more closely resembled a trial and error recitation than a discussion. In some cases, the development of the idea was limited to recall of facts without the necessary relating of these details to one another in some recognizable pattern. In other cases, the discussion was not supported by learnings developed during the study; hence there was no common point of reference for both teacher and pupils. In many instances the chalkboard was not utilized to record points as they were made by pupils; thus an important tool was overlooked for helping children summarize and generalize. Discussion can be an important technique for concept development, but this study indicates that it requires skillful handling by the teacher if it is to be so used.

This exploration of teachers' difficulties with learning experiences that lead to the development of concepts has many implications for the teacher's role in guiding concept development. In a sense, the teacher is a programmer of instruction because he has the task of breaking down or analyzing the conceptual objectives into "teachable-learnable chunks." He also has to design learning experiences that are appropriate to each objective and that are at the same time manageable by the children. This is the individual teacher's task because it is he who makes the final decision regarding the actual study and its implementation. No curriculum document, course of study, or resource unit can replace this aspect of the teacher's planning. In this respect, the teacher's role in concept development is crucial. If the teachers in this study fairly represent beginning elementary teachers throughout the country, it is abundantly clear that they will need many guided experiences not only in analyzing and using conceptual objectives, but also in selecting and using appropriate pupil learning experiences.

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION: THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

focus on values

John Jarolimek, *Editor*

BOARD OF ADVISORS

Charlotte Crabtree
Assistant Professor of Education
University of California
Los Angeles, California

Eleanor Graham
Consultant in Social Science
Metropolitan Public Schools
Nashville, Tennessee

Adelene Howland
Director of Elementary Education
Mount Vernon Public Schools
Mount Vernon, New York

Mary Lewis
Elementary Social Studies Supervisor
Cincinnati Public Schools
Cincinnati, Ohio

Jean Matheson
Director of Elementary Education
Sarasota Public Schools
Sarasota, Florida

John D. McAulay
Professor of Elementary Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

John U. Michaelis
Professor of Education
University of California
Berkeley, California

Vincent R. Rogers
Professor of Elementary Education
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Frank Tempest
Elementary Social Studies Teacher
Division of Instructional Services
Denver Public Schools
Denver, Colorado

Gilbert M. Wilson
Chairman, Department of
Elementary Education
Boston University
Boston, Massachusetts

This supplement presents five stimulating and thought-provoking articles on the subject of values and value teaching as related to the elementary social studies program. Policies concerning the school's role in teaching values and the valuing process have been far from clear or consistent. Consequently, this subject is not only one of the most sensitive and controversial with which the elementary teacher and curriculum worker are confronted; it is also one of the most complex and challenging.

The five authors prepared their articles independently of one another and none read any of the other manuscripts. Nonetheless, the reader will detect that the authors reinforce each other's thinking on a number of issues. The authors do not take the position that they are presenting final answers to this complicated problem. Nor do they expect that readers will agree with everything they have to say. They do, rather, share with the readers their thinking on this subject with the expectation and hope that their views will stimulate others to explore the topic further for themselves.

This is the second collection of five articles devoted to social studies education in the elementary school prepared for a special section of the journal. A total of four such sections will appear during the current academic year, dealing consecutively with concepts, values, skills, and individualizing instruction. These sections will be available as a sixty-four page bulletin at a nominal price in May. The cost of the bulletin, as well as directions for ordering, will be announced in the March issue of *Social Education*.

Elementary Education Supplement
published four times a year.
Financed by the Mary E. Kelty Fund

Two Styles of School Talk About Values

by WILLIAM R. FIELDER

Associate Professor
Claremont, California Graduate School

WHAT are the orthodoxies of school talk about values? Is there a less conventional and, hopefully, more useful way in which to make such school talk? This paper concerns only these two questions.

Orthodox Talk

How can teachers impart an idealized consensus Something (values, American-style) to a collective Somebody (kids, American-style)? That's how the school/value problem is ordinarily posed. Talk about the problem is usually arranged around a handful of easily predicted topics. These topics and the orthodox discourse about them are summed up here.

The Value Wash-Out. Talkers must have listeners. In making school/value talk, you get listeners by toting up how much has eroded from American life. Sex, delinquency, drugs, draft cards, and divorce are the common measures of how much has been washed away. No matter how clumsy or melodramatic a speaker might be, scare talk about contemporary social conditions makes earnest listeners out of most people.

After getting people to listen, most talkers set to work describing their program. Most talkers do two things: describe the value wash-out and prescribe a remedy. More prudent speakers insert an intermediate question. That is, after describing what is gone but before prescribing how to get it back, the careful speaker considers whether or not the school is the relevant institution to administer the getting-back program he has in mind.

Potent or Otherwise? How much, if anything, can the schools do to impart values? This is a conventional subject for talk and quite obviously a necessary one.

The minority position here is that schools are probably a great deal less than potent in propagating values. Usually the minority expression takes the form of remarking that mothers are more powerful than teachers, and social class is more instructive than schools. The admonition is frequently added that, "Schools get into hot water when they assume they can do anything the public wants them to."

But the volume of talk favors the position that the schools can do something, if not a great deal, toward inculcating values in children. The orthodox view appears to be just about as Bressler has described it, "The ideology of mass education rejects the tragic view of life, for philosophy provides the promise and science the assurance that men can ascend the mountain if they but choose to do so together. The ethic of the ideology of mass education is therefore the Judaeo-Christian tradition, its love, forbearance, and compassion; its science is alive with options, with change, fluidity, and development."[1]

One or Many? A politically bewildering problem for the practical man of schooling involves the fact of pluralism in values. There are many Americas, as every school employee learns no later than on the occasion when he accepts his second position of employment in the publics' schools.

Do you teach an ideal set, the abstract set of values receiving high agreement but seldom, if ever, experienced by people? Perhaps this is the set favored by suburban, moderate, protestant, business America. But suburban, moderate, protestant, business America seems also to favor achievement over education and instructors over intellectuals. Who can be sure of such people?

A related problem for the schoolman involves the possibility of colliding values. For example, the American values of free association, rights of property, the rights of States are now being contested by other American values—those of equity, economic opportunity, and the equality of men. In customary school talk it often appears that the advocates of a single system of idealized values must either ignore the probability of colliding values or else they must retreat to a very sentimental position when values appear to conflict over real political problems.

Direct or Otherwise? Conventional discourse seems to divide on this issue with some speakers favoring curriculum and others favoring circumstance. The reigning aphorism of the latter group is this: "Values are caught not taught." Schoolmen advocating the indirect and covert learning circumstance as an explanation for how values come to be, suffer the tactical disadvantages of being hard put to offer explicit, practical programs of action. It seems fair to say that customary talk favors those who hold with the curriculum possibility. That is, the volume of talk favors an explicit pedagogy to teach children values in school.

---

[1] From "Conventional Wisdom of Education and Sociology." In Charles H. Page, editor. *Sociology and Contemporary Education.* New York: Random House, 1963. p. 83.

There is another but closely related topic when schoolmen discuss the issue of "directness." This is the issue of "substance." Often those talkers who advocate "direct" procedures see their opponents' teaching as a vacuous, life-adjustment enterprise.

Substantive or Otherwise? School/value talk, after the conventional opening topic of value wash-out, is often detached, temperate, and impersonal. Talk about the question of "substance" takes on a different tone, however, shifting to one of greater intensity and involvement.

There appear to be two forms of disdainful talk on the issue of "substance." Those who seem to see the teaching of values as a vacuous enterprise characterize such programs as the happy emoting of groupy, talk-talk social studies. Counterpart talk shows its disdain by characterizing "substantive" programs as: "Memorize the Preamble forward and back, bring on the McGuffy readers, and 'Damn the torpedoes. . . .' "

Social Studies or Otherwise? One final bit of common talk concerns the question of whether value teaching is a total school program or one confined to the social studies period. The issue seldom seems to excite anyone, and I would judge that the preponderance of talk routinely acknowledges the notion of total school involvement but inevitably turns to the social studies teacher to find out where the action is . . . or isn't.

Radical Talk

This closing section asserts a different basis for school/value talk. I do so in an exploratory attempt to avoid some of the well rehearsed discussion common to the subject.

Standard school/value talk contains these views:

- —a Something called values was created by Americans in the indefinite past;
- —kids don't have it;
- —adults do;
- —adults had better get busy giving that Something to kids.

Non-standard school/value talk asserts a contrary view:

- —a Something called values is being created now;
- —kids do value;
- —but, often the valuing is confused and unexamined;
- —adults can aid kids toward greater clarity in their task of valuing.

The central problem of values is first the discovery of self. Second, it is learning to examine what one finds, notices, sees, or otherwise fails to avoid encountering in oneself. The value problem for each of us is the prosaic task of working toward examined selfhood.

I will discuss four deterrents to working at becoming a self while attending the public elementary schools. These deterrents are: associations, myth, dependency, and maneuver.

Associations. One condition inimical to the development of a self is enforced collaboration with detached adults carefully playing roles. For many, teaching is the non-expression of self.

Perhaps such conditions begin with the reasons one has for entering teaching. They are often contingent ones. Pleasant sophomores tell themselves and others they are entering teaching for reasons like these:

- —the work schedule each day and month nicely accommodates marriage and childrearing;
- —if anything happens to my husband, I'll always be able to get a job;
- —I'll always be able to get a job no matter where my husband's company sends him;
- —teaching is a good way to counteract the boredom of middle-age.

Teaching is seen as an appropriate solution to a set of contingencies. It is not often seen as a manner of expressing the self. Nor is the decision for teaching often seen for what it is—the acting out of strong needs for security. Unfortunately, such a motive may not be sufficient in the face of the ordinary antics and contrariness of school children.

Teaching as a non-expression of self is encouraged by the established curriculum posture. Conventionally, the schools act as if the most important resources of a classroom were the textbook and the curriculum guide. It must be so because we take very great care to see that there are standard supplies, standard expectations, and standard procedures for every third grade in a given school district. Teachers are thus encouraged to regard themselves as neutral agents acting out the loose mandates of the third grade course of study.

We do very little to encourage the expression of self by the uniquely different people hired for work in the classroom. The curiosity in this matter is that even while playing roles in denial of self, every small teaching behavior speaks of who one is. Being dignified, being very composed, being directive, touching, and laughing may speak to the teacher about who he is. But customarily, we do not help classroom teachers to find in their transactions with pupils traces of the self.

We commonly assume that a teacher is a curriculum neuter, that a value-teaching program is independent of any particular agent employed to enact the preplanned program. Or, equally false, we assume that the agent must embody all the virtues stressed in such a program and teachers are such people. In either case we usually put aside consideration of the first order task (noticing the self in teaching) and, instead, set about pursuing the second order of business (constructing an explicit program for imparting values).

Myth. James Baldwin writes that this country is bothered by identity problems.[2] What passes for identity, asserts Baldwin, is a series of myths about our heroic ancestors.[3] It's a bitter contention and must be considered here because I regard the issue of values as only a special form of the identity problem.

There is abundant opinion that school history is pretty history, that social studies instruction perpetuates sentimentalities about agrarian, rural, entrepreneurial America. H. M. Clements puts it most pungently in his characterization of the schools as "emporiums of popular small-town social mythologies."

Small-town social mythology is defended in schools on the grounds that children need to be sheltered. However, it is our view that teachers, not children, wish to be sheltered.[4] It is teachers that have an emotional stake in maintaining averted eyes, in schooling children while looking the other way. It is painful and threatening to face the hard evidence of conflict, strife, and racism that is importantly a part of the history of this country. Only now are there faint stirrings in the production of text materials to render Negroes less anonymous. Only *after* Negroes have yanked our heads around to look directly at their social circumstance have we been able to consider even timid text revisions. The discrepancy between the conflictual history that is known and the pretty history we concoct for children suggests that it is the adult who wishes to be sheltered.

The fact that children are schooled by adults who look the other way says a great deal. Above all it says something about what Olders are willing to affirm about themselves. To say that we teach pretty history to shelter the young is simply to project onto children the wishes and fears of their elders.

Social concealments, whatever their form, are probably inimical to nurturing an identity. Even the customary curriculum arrangements for the social studies offer a concealment. The conflictual Here and Now is effectively confined to the early primary grades where, as Jerome Brunner puts it, city government is portrayed as a kind of Cub Scout Den presided over by a scoutmaster.

Dependency. Certain school conditions seem to encourage children toward dependency on others for feelings about the self. Children are helped in school to live apart from the self. Surely the massive, clumsy use of peer pressure is one confirming circumstance.

The new critics on the left—Goodman's *Growing Up Absurd,* Friedenberg's *Vanishing Adolescent,* Dexter's *The Tyranny of Schooling,* Henry's *Culture Against Man,* Holt's *How Children Fail*—offer poignant testimony concerning the vulnerability of children to the alienating propensities of schools.

Maneuver. Finally, schools engage in a series of administrative maneuvers that are probably inimical to the development of selfhood. In the name of "Split Reading Program," "Team Teaching," "Gifted Classes," and, ironically, "Individualized Instruc tion," children are sometimes treated as anonymous units to be clustered, scheduled, or machined toward some achievement criteria called, in macabre metaphor, "terminal behavior."

Administrative maneuver is the artful shuffling of time, space, materials, and other objects called people.

But the problems of mass education are just that. What is required is less, not more, genius devoted to treating pupils as aggregates in one administrative maneuver or another.

---

[2] James Baldwin. "A Talk to Teachers." *Saturday Review,* December 21, 1963.

[3] *Ibid.,* p. 44.

[4] *See* W. R. Fielder. "Education With Averted Eyes." Presented at the Conference on Moral Dilemmas in Schooling, University of Wisconsin, May 12-14, 1965. Mimeographed.

Values and the Primary School Teacher

by BERNICE J. WOLFSON

Visiting Lecturer in Education
University of Chicago

THE question "Should a teacher be concerned with the development of values in her pupils?" is a real question. Merely by the fact of living with them for the school year, she is an important influence on all they learn.

Particularly in the early school years the teacher provides some sort of model for the child. In what direction she will influence him depends on many factors, but undoubtedly he experiences the value system that she inevitably communicates through her deeds and concerns.

An observer in a classroom can infer what appear to be the values of the teacher, i.e. what is prized, important, of greatest concern. If, on the one hand, she scolds and embarrasses a child before the whole class because he has just broken a large jar of paste, it would appear that she values this property more than the feelings of this child. If she tears up a child's paper because it is not neat, she appears to be valuing her standard of neatness over the child's effort and feelings.

If, on the other hand, the teacher helps the child to see alternative possibilities and encourages him to make decisions for himself, she is demonstrating her regard for him as a person. She will be less manipulative and judgmental if she truly views him as a valued, worthwhile human being. It is apparent that as a teacher interacts in the classroom she is communicating in both obvious and subtle ways the fabric of her personal values.

Where did she get her values? Values and attitudes are learned, and also unlearned, but there is very little concrete knowledge about how this occurs. Anthropologists, psychologists, and specialists in child development have looked at the child in the setting of his culture, home, and school. It has been suggested that he assimilates the values of his society and his home as unconsciously as he breathes the air around him. Possibly he imitates the values and attitudes he experiences in his home. When he gets into the larger society of neighborhood and school (and beyond), he may further imitate the values of those he admires. As some express it, he identifies with other individuals and accepts their values.

In all these descriptions there seems to be the assumption of determinism at work and of a lack of awareness or choice on the part of the individual. However, it is not necessary to deny the influence of the culture and family in order to recognize that human beings have alternatives. At various stages in his life, an individual may examine his feelings and new knowledge, recognize inconsistencies in his values, and revise or radically change his value priorities. He is continually valuing and re-valuing whenever he has to make important decisions.

Louis Raths[1] suggests that the process by which a person develops, reconsiders, and revises his values is one of clarification. The analysis of this process, and many examples of classroom activities found in *Values and Teaching*,[2] will be extremely helpful to teachers of all levels. Each primary grade teacher will of course need to adapt and modify the suggested procedures for use with her particular class. Initially, it would be most profitable for the teacher to try this process herself.

The influence of the teacher in value development is far from clear; but it should be evident that to the extent that her own value system is unexamined and inconsistent, she may well be providing a model that is confusing to the child. The questions she would reflect on might include some of the following:

1. Is that very important to me?
2. How did I feel when that happened?
3. What other alternatives did I consider?
4. Would I freely choose this alternative?
5. What do I mean by . . . ?
6. What assumptions did I make?
7. Was this consistent with what I did?
8. Do I do this often?
9. What can I do about this idea?
10. Would I do it again the same way?
11. How do I know it's right?
12. Why did I do it that way?

(Adapted from Raths *et al*, pp. 56-62)

As a teacher clarifies her values, she also needs to examine her classroom actions and ask: Are they consistent with my priorities? e.g. I believe I value initiative; does my classroom encourage initiative or does it emphasize following directions?

---

[1] Louis Raths, Merrill Harmin and Sidney B. Simon. *Values and Teaching*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1966.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 112-162.

As the primary grade teacher proceeds to reflect on and clarify her own values, she will find it appropriate to raise some of the same questions with the children. She will want to ensure appropriate opportunities for valuing. Raths and his associates express the goal as:

> . . . children who have clear, personal values. The goal, therefore, requires opportunities for children to use the processes of (a) choosing freely, (b) choosing from alternatives, (c) choosing thoughtfully, (d) prizing and cherishing, (e) affirming, (f) acting upon choices, and (g) examining patterns of living.[3]

Possibly in the primary years some children will be more ready than others to reflect and respond to questions of this sort. (In fact, Raths and his associates suggest that this may not be an appropriate technique for children "who have insufficient ego strength."[4])

There are other kinds of experiences that may encourage the child to become aware of his own feelings and the feelings of other children, to consider the consequences of alternative choices, and to engage in decision-making. Additional activities that seem to be particularly relevant are: experiencing the feelings and dilemmas of literary characters; enacting in creative dramatics or role playing the feelings, decisions, and consequences of various situations; and discussing or role playing some of the human concerns and problems that grow out of life at school.

Relatively unstructured literature and art experiences can help children keep in touch with their rich pre-conceptual feeling for life, which is one of the concrete referents for the valuing process. Acting out, or discussing how story characters feel in various situations is a vicarious valuing process.

Children spontaneously comment about their own experiences and feelings in relation to the story characters. They also react in terms of what other consequences might follow. In part, it is a growing awareness of the common human dilemmas that will assist a child in understanding himself and the others in his world.

Specific suggestions, descriptions, and pitfalls can be found in the material written by Nichols and Williams,[5] Raths *et al*,[6] Shaftel,[7] and Wolfson.[8] No doubt each teacher will select and experiment with those approaches that seem most suitable to her.

Finally, an additional source of experience that may promote value development is a classroom that provides a wide variety of opportunities for self-selection of goals and activities by the pupils. If a child is encouraged sometimes to consider alternatives, sometimes to consider possible consequences, sometimes to explain his reasons, and often to examine his feelings, he is, indeed, engaged in valuing.

Two basic questions related to the entire discussion above are: Does it matter what values the teacher holds? Does it matter how the teacher arrives at her values?

I would hypothesize that it *does* matter what values the teacher holds, for her values influence the way she organizes and operates her classroom and the way she interacts with the children. However, more important is how she arrived at her values and if she is willing to re-examine them and to continue to engage in the valuing process.

To some extent we are a pluralistic society. Every person meets others who hold values that are different from and in conflict with his values. In addition, many of us do not continuously engage in the process of clarifying our values and we do not live the values we profess. Using Louis Raths' criteria for a value,[9] this would mean we do not have these values.

Developmental (Kohlberg),[10] therapeutic (Gendlin),[11] and educational (Raths)[12] points of view all suggest the need for attention to the valuing *process*. How we engage in valuing is significant because valuing is a crucial life-time activity.

Different analyses of the process all imply that we cannot in any meaningful or useful sense impose our values on someone else. If I want a person to develop values that are meaningful and active for him, I cannot insist on *my* values for *him*. My values are only relevant as an example of one acting, valuing human being.

It should be stated, then, that the value assumptions implicit in this paper are generally what Dahlke[13] referred to as the Humanistic Value Orientation. His is primarily a sociological frame of reference, so I would add those assumptions about the nature of man that are developed in the more or less

(Continued on page 47)

---

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 82.

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 223.

[5] Hildred Nichols and Lois Williams. *Learning About Role-Playing for Children and Teachers.* Washington, D. C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1960.

[6] Raths, *op. cit.*

[7] George Shaftel and Fannie R. Shaftel. *Role Playing The Problem Story.* New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1952. (Also new book in press.)

[8] Bernice J. Wolfson. "Reading About Emotions in the Primary Classroom." *Elementary English*, 31:146-149; March 1954.

[9] Raths *et al*, *op. cit.*, pp. 28-29.

[10] Lawrence Kohlberg. "Moral Education in the Schools; A Developmental View." *The School Review*, Vol. 74, No. 1, Spring 1966, pp. 1-30.

[11] Eugene Gendlin. "Values and the Process of Experiencing." Chapter in A. R. Mahrer, editor. *The Goals of Psychotherapy.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., in press.

[12] Raths *et al*, *op. cit.*

[13] H. Otto Dahlke. *Values in Culture and Classroom.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1958, pp. 60-61.

Value Teaching in the Middle and Upper Grades: A Rationale for Teaching But Not Transmitting Values

by MELVIN EZER

Professor and Chairman of Elementary Education
University of Bridgeport

"ALL EDUCATION, we may assume, is aimed at the transmission of values of our culture, and the development of socially acceptable attitudes [and behavior] towards problems and conflicts."[1]

"Rubbish! Not only rubbish, but . . . repulsive," exclaims Michael Scriven.[2] The reason for Scriven's rejection of this educational objective is that in the name of morality, immoral behavior is advocated. The author of this paper is in agreement with Scriven's position as it relates to value teaching in the middle and upper grades of the elementary school, and an alternative proposal for teaching values in these grades will be presented.

If there is concern with ethics, as expressed in the opening quote, then a fundamental proposition in ethics asserts that the individual has the right to determine for himself what is right or wrong concerning the basic issues of conduct. It then becomes the responsibility if not the duty of the public schools in a democratic society to inform the pupil of the alternatives available to him, to describe the modes and consequences of his behavior, and to teach him the skills that are necessary to evaluate these alternatives. The teaching of values does not give the teacher the right to force his solutions on the children he teaches, except in so far as the information given to the children persuades them to accept his views. Underlying this position of value teaching are the assumptions that value disputes can be settled by rational means and that children in the middle and upper grades of the elementary school are capable of making their own value judgments by use of the intellect.[3]

It thus becomes obvious that it is not the teacher's responsibility to tell children what is right or wrong, but rather it is the responsibility of the teacher to raise value questions and to discuss these within the restrictions of evidence, the rules of logic, and the use of reason. The children should be given opportunities to investigate and discuss value questions under the teacher's guidance, and then the children should be allowed to make up their own minds about these vital matters without being unduly influenced by their teachers.[4]

It is at this point that the question of teacher bias is usually raised; that is, if a teacher is already committed to a value position (much in the way this author has particular enthusiasm for his view regarding the teaching of values to children), is it then possible for him to present other points of view in an objective and effective manner? The answer to this query is that children can and perhaps should be taught values by teachers who have taken a position on a particular problem or issue, because it is not only possible but quite probable that many teachers who hold particular views can present other views fully and fairly. In addition, there should be the opportunity for pupils, and supporters of other views, to make their presentations with equal zeal.[5]

Concomitant with the responsibility of presenting various points of view on value questions is the responsibility of the middle and upper grade teacher to teach children to become proficient in such skills as clarifying issues, verifying information on which values are based, and analyzing the logic inherent in the solution of problems. The teaching and attainment of these skills is crucial to the method of presenting values proposed herein.

Let us now take a value question and illustrate the manner in which it can be presented to children utilizing the format that has been suggested. Let us examine the problem presented when a decision regarding the abrogation of free speech is in question, a value that is jealously guarded. The problem had arisen in the midst of an explosive situation that occurred in a suburb of Chicago in August, 1966, when tensions resulting from Civil Rights demonstrations were at their highest. George Rockwell, the self-proclaimed leader of the American Nazi movement, applied for permission to schedule a rally and speech in this community. These events could have led to rioting, destruction of property, and even the loss of life. The problem that faced the authorities and that could have been presented to an elementary school class was whether Rockwell should have been prevented from speaking.

---

[1] Preston E. James. "Geography." *The Social Studies and the Social Sciences*. Sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and the National Council for the Social Studies. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1962, p. 42.

[2] Michael Scriven. "The Structure of the Social Studies." *In* G. W. Ford and Lawrence Pugno, editors. *The Structure of Knowledge and the Curriculum*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1964, p. 101.

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] Nancy W. Bauer, editor. *Revolution and Reaction: The Impact of the New Social Studies*. Bloomfield Hills, Michigan: Cranbrook Press, pp. 75-76.

[5] Scriven, *op. cit.*, p. 102.

An approach that is commonly utilized in this type of problem situation, if it is discussed at all, is for the teacher to ask the children what decision they would make if they were the authorities. In many classrooms the teachers would inform the children what the correct or right decision is or ought to be. Parenthetically, it is highly questionable whether the teacher's solution is more valid than the children's since his view may have no better factual or analytic basis than the children he is teaching. In most instances it is at these junctures that the discussion of the value question ends.

The author has stated previously that all possible solutions should be presented; in this instance, the children's, the teacher's, that of newspaper editorials, radio and television commentators, civic authorities, and so forth. These viewpoints must be examined using the skills and criteria described earlier. Additional questions must be raised and discussed—such questions as the importance of the value of free speech as compared with the value of life and property. What would the consequences be to our society if we abandoned one or both? What would be the logical consequences for other values in our society if we abandoned the right to speak when speaking threatens life or property? Who is to decide and upon what basis when speech threatens life and property? What relief for wrong decisions is available?[6]

Only after these discussions and explorations have taken place should the decisions be made, and then the children should be allowed to provide their own answers and solutions to the problem as individuals. The goal of educational process described above is to have children arrive at value decisions through rational means. It is also the attempt to develop the cognitive skills that are essential in the study of value problems.

> Moral reasoning and the moral behavior it indicates should be taught and taught about, if for no other reason than it is immoral to keep children ignorant of the empirical and logical bases behind the law and institutions which incorporate this country's virtues and permit its vices. But in addition to this intellectual payoff is the practical benefit to a society whose members are skilled in making value judgments. Such a society becomes a moral community offering important benefits to all its members.[7]

Another question that has not yet been answered but that is most important to this discussion is the place and treatment of "basic," "ultimate," or "absolute" values. As teachers and their classes engage in the analysis of values, the problem of "ultimate" values will certainly arise. The argument about the existence of "ultimate" values is not the concern of this paper. It is of little import here, also, because the author has been attempting to demonstrate that the majority of value problems that children will confront in their public school classes can be settled by empirical investigation and logical analysis. The school's responsibility is fairly clear on this issue. It is to have the children use the processes already described to push the value "frontier" as far as possible without worrying about the last "frontier."[8]

Any discussion of value teaching must consider the affective as well as the cognitive realm, because discussions of value questions that only employ the cognitive processes for their solution may become academic exercises for the children, devoid of meaning for their own lives. In the treatment of a value question there should be emotional involvement by the child as well as insight. While as full and complete an understanding as possible of the value problem should be the first order of business and is necessary, it is, however, not sufficient. The discussion of value questions requires that the child see himself in another's position whenever possible. In short, it requires empathy and sympathy on the part of the pupil. All forms of ego-involving activities are most relevant and appropriate in teaching values.

Here again an example that actually occurred will be given in order to portray the interdependence of intellect and emotion in value teaching.

In a fifth grade class discussion concerning equality of rights (a value, by the way, to which this nation is fully committed), the various means of attaining this value by political, religious, ethnic and/or racial groups were considered. Revolution was suggested as a way of achieving equality of rights, thus raising the moral question of the "means-end" relationship. The concept of revolution was examined using Brinton's *Anatomy of Revolution* as the authority.[9] Three revolutions, the American, Cuban, and Orwell's *Animal*

(Continued on page 47)

---

[6] Michael Scriven. "Values in the Curriculum." *Social Science Education Consortium Newsletter*, II, No. 1, April 1966, p. 1.

[7] *Ibid*. p. 2.

[8] *Ibid*., p. 1.

[9] Crane Brinton. *The Anatomy of Revolution*, rev. and exp. New York: Vintage Press, 1965.

Using Learning Resources in Teaching Values

by GERALD M. TORKELSON

Professor of Education
University of Washington

THE teaching of values in elementary school social studies is one of the more difficult tasks a teacher faces. This is due partially to the nature of values themselves and the need to clearly define what is meant by values. Another complicating factor concerns the selection of proper learning experiences that can promote value acquisition.

Values generally are included in the category of learning called the affective domain. They deal with feelings, emotional tones, and subjective judgments. They concern what one considers valuable, important, or unimportant. For an elementary child, for example, a certain type of behavior may be valued because of family background, prejudices, religious training, peer pressures, or cultural heritage. In order for the teacher to understand the values that children hold—and the values she may consciously or unconsciously reflect in her teaching—it is useful to review briefly the qualities of values that will be important to consider in selecting proper kinds of learning experiences and resources.

The principal effort to classify objectives in the affective domain grew out of a meeting of psychologists in 1948. In the course of their discussions, it was realized that common understanding among them would be facilitated by the development of a common frame of reference. Subsequently, there was developed a taxonomy of educational objectives for the cognitive domain (1956,)[1] and, more recently, for the affective domain (1964).[2]

One of the tasks facing the authors was the refinement of terms. For example, when the word *values* is considered, one might think of *interest-in, appreciation-of,* and *attitude-toward.* In the *Taxonomy,* separation of these words is made in terms of degrees of involvement of the individual, or in terms of the *internalization* that takes place. *Internalization* is defined as the process by which a phenomenon or value successively and pervasively becomes a part of the individual. At the lowest level there is little emotional involvement, simply a perceiving of the phenomenon. At the middle levels there is an emotional response that becomes a critical part of behavior. At the highest levels the behavior has become completely internalized and routine. Emotion decreases and responses become a kind of ingrained patterning or system.

Some of the techniques that teachers may employ in identifying children's value systems and in assisting them in value development may lie in the ways that attitudes and values are acquired. Four ways—not mutually exclusive—are by ***integration, trauma, differentiation,*** and ***adoption.*** All elementary children have acquired by ***adoption*** the values of the social milieu from which they have come. Some have also acquired values through traumatic experiences. It is much less likely that values will have been achieved by ***differentiation,*** the result of a general state of dissatisfaction; or by ***integration,*** a higher order of experience by which specific reactions are systematically generalized into a value complex. Undoubtedly there is some of the latter occurring, but primarily through the sheer weight of experience on a somewhat unconscious or unexpressed level.

Among the four ways of acquiring values, it is generally accepted that the major hope of the elementary social studies teacher would be that children become engaged in the processes of ***differentiation*** and ***integration*** as objective ways of examining values and attitudes. This technique of examination would be consistent with that expressed by Griffin[3] in what he called the "reflective" method of teaching, as distinguished from the problem-solving technique. While Griffin applied his technique primarily to the teaching of history, there are aspects of this approach that have promise for the examination of values and attitudes by children in the social studies.

> *Reflective thought* is the active, careful, and persistent examination of any belief, or purported form of knowledge, in the light of the grounds that support it and the furthur conclusions towards which it tends.[4]

---

[1] B. S. Bloom *et al. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain,* New York: Longman's, Green and Co., Inc., 1956.

[2] D. R. Krathwohl *et al. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain.* New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1964.

[3] N. L. Gage, editor. *Handbook of Research on Teaching,* American Educational Research Association. Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1963. (See Chapter 17)

[4] *Ibid.,* p. 934.

This conception of learning, according to Griffin, would mean that children would learn that something *is* true, rather than learn *to say* that something is true. Or, relating it to value examination, children would concentrate on the true aspects of values as distinguished from learning the symbols that represent the values. These suggestions that the child engage in reflective thought have direct implications for the use of learning resources. The first concerns the selection of various kinds of materials and devices that have the potential for involving the learner in some direct or vicarious way.

Recognizing that values and attitudes are composed of feelings and emotional involvement, it becomes imperative that the experiences selected provide some degree of emotional tone. This is not to suggest that every experience dealing with an attitude or value must evoke trauma, even to a slight degree, for sometimes cold facts must be examined in an analytical way. Rather, the emotional tone would be necessary to provide a state of readiness—and perhaps anxiety—that would make acceptable and necessary the examination of the "facts in the case."

Two kinds of learning resources that lend themselves very well to attitude and value examination are role playing and sound motion pictures. Both have certain powers of empathy. While many persons have been moved to tears by some powerful motion picture, this reaction is less likely with role playing because it does not provide the "privacy" that the film affords during viewing. Film techniques also lend credence to the "illusion" of reality that role playing cannot provide as artfully.

As a rule of thumb in using motion pictures for reflective teaching, a useful procedure is to use the questioning approach. This would serve several purposes. One would be to require overt reaction by the learner, thereby supporting personal involvement in the film. This approach is also consistent with conclusions from motion picture research that indicate that this technique results in more learning from films. Rather than telling learners what they are to see, the teacher asks the pupils what relevant information they expect to gain from the film and, after the showing, asks what was seen and what it meant. As part of this procedure the pupil should verbalize his responses to gain experience in structuring his beliefs and attitudes. This approach is also used to advance the levels of "internalization" that require the organization of values.

Another aspect of motion picture use for shaping attitudes and values concerns the film introduction and follow-up. Sometimes an unthinking teacher can destroy the inherent value of the film for evoking emotional response by inept and inadequate introductions. A case in point is the use of the film *Due Process of Law Denied*, a condensation of a Hollywood production of the historic Oxbow Incident.[8] Through excellent acting and appropriate mood music, this film dramatically portrays the story of three men in the Nevada territory who are wrongfully accused of cattle rustling and murder by an impatient posse. Contrary to the typical television "Western," the three men are hanged before it is learned that they are innocent. This writer has observed on a number of occasions that members of the audience were moved to tears by their personal involvement and their revulsion to the injustice done.

In contrast to this technique of simply announcing the film and letting it carry its own message, imagine, if you will, how the impact of the film could be substantially diminished—in fact, destroyed—by comments such as, "Now boys and girls, we have been considering the effects on people of different kinds of injustice. Today I have a film that deals with such an incident—the Oxbow Incident. In this film you will see that three men on the American frontier are accused of rustling and murder, are caught by a hastily composed posse and are hanged. This is unfortunate because soon after the hanging, the sheriff arrives with word that the man who committed the murder had been caught. This is a rather tense movie in parts, but don't get too involved. By the way, after we have seen the movie, we will discuss the incident."

There have been a number of experimental studies dealing with the use of films for shaping attitudes. The principal conclusions are aptly summarized by Hoban and Van Ormer in *Instructional Film Research, 1918-1950.*

> In the light of research data and psychological theory, it is becoming increasingly evident that the ability of any medium of communication, including motion pictures, to modify motivation, attitudes, and opinions lies not so much in the medium itself, but in the relationship of the content and bias of the medium to (1) the personality structure of the perceiving individuals, and (2) the social environment of the audience. Any medium of communication is exactly that—*a medium of communication.* In the process of communication the role of a communicator is not to impress his interpretation of experience on an audience. Rather, it involves the *reaction* of the audience to the communicator's interpretation of experience which he transmits by means of symbols. Hence, the content of communication, the audience predisposition, and the social milieu must all be consistent and mutually reinforcing, if the motion picture is to influence motivation, attitudes, and opinions.[9]

(Continued on page 48)

---

[8] Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 25 West 43rd Street, New York City 10036.

[9] C. F. Hoban, Jr. and E. B. Van Ormer. *Instructional Film Research, 1918-1950.* Technical Report No. SDC 269-7-19, Navexos P-977. Special Devices Center, Port Washington, Long Island, New York, 1950. Chapter V, p. 20.

Guaranteeing the Values Component in Elementary School Social Studies

by NANCY W. BAUER

Coordinator of Social Studies
Birmingham, Michigan Public School District

BECAUSE of the variety of interrelated goals of today's social studies, and because of the realities of program implementation in the schools, the burden of values-centered teaching and learning cannot fall entirely on the teachers and the learners. If the values component is not built into the elementary social studies curriculum from the very beginning, there will be no predictable change in pupil behavior.

We have finally come to grips with the uncomfortable understanding that unless our pupils indicate by their behavior that they have not only understood but have internalized our high-minded goals relating to values, we have not succeeded, no matter how hard we have tried. What is worse, we will have failed the children, the communities we serve, and the academic disciplines we represent. We must evaluate our academic efforts by the behavior of our alumni. Instead of the disillusionment of the *Rector of Justin*, "It has always been my chief regret that [we have] sent so few men into public service,"[1] it is our expectation that a values-oriented curriculum will send pupils into a lifetime of social study and thoughtful social action.

The first step in any curriculum design is, of course, the statement of goals and the courageous determination, in writing, of what behavior on the part of our pupils will indicate that goals have been achieved. Stating overt behavior goals means we are willing to be evaluated. The Birmingham, Michigan Public School District, under a "taxpayers grant" for innovation and improvement,[2] began its K-12 curriculum re-making in social studies just this way. The goals were developed with the help of national publications and with the specific aid of university consultants working with a K-12 steering committee of teachers and administrators. The *Social Studies Structure*[3] states as its "goals for students":

1. That they will be motivated to continue learning—
    as evidenced by their free choice of how they spend their time when not in structured classroom situations.
2. That they will understand basic concepts and bodies of information—
    as evidenced by identification and use of that information in new situations.
3. That they will reason on the basis of skillful inquiry—
    as evidenced by:
    their analysis when confronted by new problems.
    their dialogue with others on matters of public controversy.
4. That they will function (act) successfully as an individual and as a participant in group (involvement)—
    as evidenced by the acceptance of leadership when it is needed and the ability to work on a team or to follow when that behavior seems warranted.
5. That they will possess objective attitudes which will enable them to judge responsibility—
    as evidenced by:
    their ability to analyze, judge, and take action in new academic situations.
    their behavior in and outside of school in discussion of controversial issues with others.
6. That they will be able to accept differences—
    as evidenced by their refusal to use the existence of differences as justification for discrimination against people different from themselves.
7. That they will believe in equality; although people differ, every individual has an equal right to freedom—
    as evidenced by their refusal to participate in discriminatory activities which deny others the ability to act or which deny others privileges they wish for or enjoy themselves.

A rapid look at these goals indicates that they are concerned with the multidimensions of today's research on interdisciplinary concepts in social studies, cognition, motivation, social behavior, and values. The seven goals are completely and irrevocably intermingled; the last two, which are specifically "values," depend on and are in turn a part of those that precede them. These goals also "value" reason, judgment-making, and action-taking.[4]

---

[1] Louis Auchincloss, *The Rector of Justin*. New York: The New American Library of World Literature, Inc. (Signet Press), 1964, p. 290.

[2] Birmingham, Michigan Plan for Individualized Instruction. Dr. John Blackhall Smith, Superintendent.

[3] *Social Studies Structure*. Birmingham, Michigan Public Schools. June 1968.

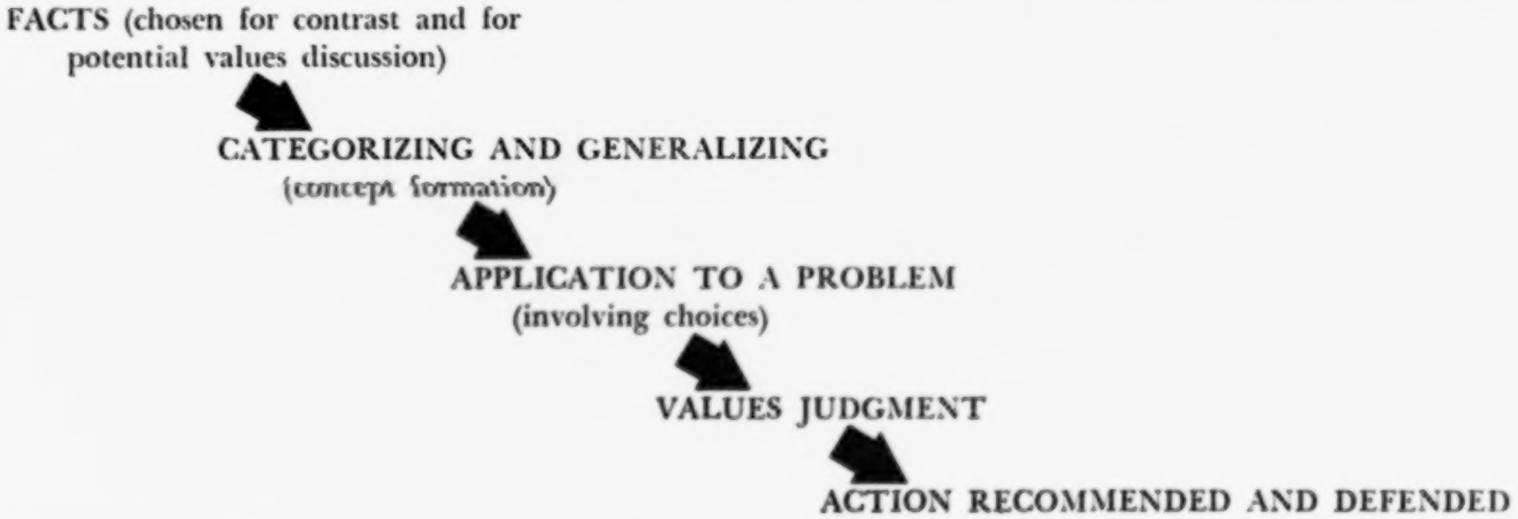
[4] The distinction among the equally significant aspects of

The adoption of a set of goals that includes values, critical thinking, facts, and action side by side removes forever, we trust, the obsolete argument of life studies *versus* academic subject matter. There is inherent in this package of behavioral goals the understanding that without real academic learning and the continuing desire to make learning a life-long task and responsibility, there is no such thing as a rational human being. To be a rational human being requires not only a life study of changing academic knowledge but a life-long commitment to an internally consistent and rationally based value system.

The Unit Sequence

What happens to the history, geography, and civics curriculum and its objective view of the facts when value questions are to be raised? Are we throwing out the knowledge baby with the rote-memory bathwater? Are we going to develop argumentative children who cannot find Boston, much less Peking, on the map? Is it not "good enough" at age eleven just to know about Paul Revere?

Our answer to this lies in the careful structuring of the order or sequence of learning experiences in each unit of every year's work, K-12. There is a definite relationship of the fact goals to the thinking, judging, and action goals. It is this relationship that secures the academic validity of the curriculum.


FACTS (chosen for contrast and for potential values discussion)
CATEGORIZING AND GENERALIZING
(concept formation)
APPLICATION TO A PROBLEM
(involving choices)
VALUES JUDGMENT
ACTION RECOMMENDED AND DEFENDED

This follows the patterns of history as well as the psychologists and sociologists determination of how decisions are made. No one can reason without items to reason about. Inquiring, organizing, generalizing, hypothesizing are activities performed on raw information. No one takes deliberate or thoughtful action without, consciously or subconsciously, judging the relative value of the data and of the alternatives for action. Choices are determined by what the individual, the group, or society feels is most important. This is what the historian calls cultural conditioning. It is value judgment. The significant points for the curriculum builder are (1) do not let the pupils make value judgments until they have collected the raw data and recognized how many kinds of problems coexist, and (2) let the value judgments be made in an application to real problems. There is a two-part corollary to this; do not let either the materials or the teacher make value judgments before the pupils have collected and classified the data and drawn some conclusions. Teachers must not tell them which are the most important items of information about the policeman or the four main causes of the discovery of the new world. To do so would be to feed them the results of someone else's value judgments as if they were objective data. Cause and effect are not a list of arbitrarily weeded-out "facts" but a crowd of conflicting issues. If the book says, "Paul Revere fought against the tyranny of England," the pupil has, by omission, been committed to an oversimplification to the point of distortion.

Just as we wish to avoid making judgments for the pupils, there is equally to be avoided the trap of random or superficial selection of factual material. As a curriculum development strategy, it is better to *plan the value questions when you plan the concepts, main ideas, and skills; before you decide which facts of current or past history to use as illustrations.* In this way you select content and materials that are potentially more meaningful, less trivial. The question of coverage becomes more efficient and economical because you select the raw facts that will lend themselves to values discussion and application in action-taking experiences.

In the Birmingham fifth grade program, we decided to focus first on groups meeting needs and what happens if the group as a nation no longer

---

values: valuing reason, believing in certain human values, and studying about values has been clearly articulated by Dr. Ronald Lippitt in his presentation "Value Inquiry in the Social Studies Classroom" at the 45th Annual Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Miami Beach, Florida, November 24-27, 1965.

meets changing needs. What should an individual do? We begin with the Lippitt-Fox Behavioral Science Study[5] of how groups form and how and why leaders are chosen. Then the pupils gather data on Paul Revere, in which he and his compatriots had to make the agonizing decision to overthrow the government. They had tried all legal means to have their problems solved, even some minor illegal actions including a "dump in," and now decided to take arms against the legal government because they believed it to be immoral. We want the pupils to realize that the significant choices are not between black and white, good and evil. They are more often as Achilles knew, and as Paul Revere knew, between two complexities, each involving both good and evil. This is factual history, full of dates, places, names, and events. But the pupil must analyze as well as empathize; then he can and must debate the issues and the universal value question—does one ever have a right to revolt against legal authority? The values discussion comes at the point of decision-making. The planning for it came right at the start, when the facts are out and the devil and the deep blue sea are clearly in view. Were the people who remained Tories "bad guys?" Would Tom Paine have been a good candidate for President? These were real times, with real people, using their real strengths and weaknesses to solve real problems.

Recognizing and building in the values component actually makes the pupils more aware of the need for facts than ever before. It also makes them less hasty in judging the actions of others. Knowing that some people could look at the facts and decide to stay loyal to England and that others could look at the same facts and decide to risk their lives in battle, does not make pupils unable to decide which side they would select. Such knowledge reminds them of the necessity to recognize existing values and of the need sometimes to build one's own. It makes them less opinionated, quicker to spot stereotyped prejudice, and more committed to the values they hold and can defend. Incidently, it does not diminish the heroism of Paul Revere to know what he had to go through to make his decision.

Comparative Content

Value questions are more easily built into a comparative curriculum than one that calls for the study of single topics, one at a time. If values are studied without looking both at ourselves and at others, we see ourselves less clearly. Charles O. Hucker, China scholar at the University of Michigan, has pointed out that nothing makes Americans so aware of what is unique here than a study of traditional Chinese cultural history. Contrast is not new to other disciplines. In new math, nothing makes our number system stand out so clearly as a system than to work in base eight for a while.

Pupils in comparative social studies "come upon" differences in what people value without having to be told what they are; discovery method and values inquiry complement each other. This helps to answer both those who worry that our children will have no values at all and those who are afraid that it is undemocratic to push democracy. In a comparative curriculum, the pupil sees the advantages of democracy in a pluralistic world and in our pluralistic nation. He comes to understand that to believe in democracy, to accept differences, and to protect the freedom of every individual is different from relativism. The curriculum must realistically reflect the pluralism of America and the world and recognize the ethical and pragmatic value of democratic decision-making. This is understanding and acceptance of pluralism leading to unity, not relativism versus uniformity. We hope pupils will recognize their own and other's values and realize that one acts because of and in light of them.

In Birmingham we have done this in the first grade by comparing the life of a child in the inner city to ourselves in the suburbs. When the six- or seven-year old finds out that one child lives near the port where there are no trees and no grass, and another lives near the great museum with its beautiful paintings, he can then talk about differences in communities. Knowledge of and interest in others may lead to the question, "Should we care about people who do not live in our neighborhood?"

In the second grade we compare how some dinosaurs adapted to change, some did not; how early man adapted to change, and how people today adapt to change in tribal societies, in newly industrialized countries, and how we ourselves accommodate to change. Pupils learn that change can take many forms and that accommodation can be physical or cultural. It is possible to change one's environment by reading poetry, decorating one's house, playing music, or making new friends. Beauty is part of man's environment, and he can control it and create it.

When values inquiry is a part of content, our reports from teachers and parents indicate a great increase in motivation. As for evaluation, Birmingham has sent a statement to teachers and parents that pupils will not be "graded" on their solution to a problem but on the degree of insight, ability to make inferences, ability to hypothesize, and ability to apply information to a new problem with factual thoroughness in defense of their value judgment.

---

[5] Written by the Michigan Social Science Education Project, Center for Research on the Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. To be published by Science Research Associates, Inc.

There are those who feel as long as children learn to reason, that reason will take care of all decision-making. We do not share this point of view. Ignoring the impact of the values dilemma after careful reasoning is to ignore the reality of human relations. To assume that all thinking people will come to a similar solution to a problem on the basis of having similar information is a gross oversimplification as well as an ice-cold approach to personal and cultural values and differences.

The research of Piaget is sometimes cited to support the idea that young children cannot handle multidimensional problems. It has been our experience that pupils can handle more than one dimension of a problem providing they are presented one at a time. This can be done in a cumulative and additive fashion, at least through grade 4.[6]

We are firmly committed to the idea that every unit, from confrontation and data-gathering to values inquiry and decision-making must be planned ahead of the time it is taught. We do not believe we can rely on pupils to bring up value questions when they are "ready" for them because (1) the prejudiced child will bring a value-laden topic up without enough background for the class to discuss it, leaving the teacher to agree or disagree with the child, or worse yet, to ignore him or silence him; (2) the apathetic child will not see the value question as relevant to the facts; he can memorize monsoons and not care about the people of India; (3) the frightened child will wait to see where everyone else stands—morality by consensus; (4) the quiet, thoughtful child may be troubled and receive no help.

It is our belief that the sequence and the content should be planned so that value questions for each age and maturity level do come up at a time and in a way that children can learn to handle them. In so doing, *we separate teaching values from raising value questions and thereby teach children how to handle value questions.* Hopefully these children as adults will not say, "We don't discuss religion and politics." After all, what else is there to talk about!

New Materials

Many of the new materials now coming on the market are disappointing in the values area. They do organize content in terms of generalizations or concepts, and they do present topics for thoughtful comparison of similarities and differences. Most stop there without adequately developing the values dimension of topics. Perhaps this stems in part from fear of public reaction to debate in the classroom and in part from lack of appreciation for the role of values in achieving conceptual and thinking goals.

Role of the Teacher

There is a point of view that values and value inquiry should be taught separately from history and the other social sciences. Our experience suggests that separate values discussions place too great a burden on the teacher's ego and the teacher's role. It leads to "What is right, Miss Jones?" and to teachers either preaching values or playing the devil's advocate with pupils. The latter role may suggest to the pupils that not everyone has to be committed to values and apply them courageously—that it is enough to be able to argue the opposing view cleverly. Between preaching and complete relativity lies the area we are most interested in: values applied to reason, leading to commitment and action.

If we rely on the teacher alone and unassisted to handle each issue raised, we are expecting every teacher to have enough background in psychology, sociology, and anthropology to understand values, and sufficient strength of ego to deal with value questions without being threatened in the process. We believe that the curriculum documents should provide the teacher with background information on selected issues as well as suggestions as to how such matters should be handled. This ensures not only that value questions will come up but will be treated in a manner least threatening to the teacher and the parents.

The form of the teacher's guide of a values-centered curriculum must provide clear and honest statements of purpose for teachers and parents in an easy-to-read design. Lack of confidence of elementary teachers in subject matter and in values discussions make many teachers and principals feel, "Well, at least we can teach map and globe skills and how to use the library." Many people avoid controversy by keeping the focus on mountains, earth science, and descriptions of occupations around the world.

We think pupils need to know not only where places are and how to locate them but why we care about the people who live there. We agree that skills must be learned but *in context in the solving of real problems.* Then motivation is high because the pupil learns the skills as he discovers the need for them. The format of the guide should help the teacher and the principal keep the program integrated and sequential. We hope to avoid the situation in which a teacher "studied the South" for four months with a fifth grade class; then when queried about how he handled the race question, answered, "You know, it never came up."

---

[6] Consultants on this part of the project were Dr. Irving E. Sigel, Chairman of Research, Merrill-Palmer Institute, Detroit, Michigan, and Mrs. Annemarie Roeper, Director of Lower School, Roeper City and Country School, Bloomfield Hills, Michigan.

PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER

(Continued from page 38)

humanistic* approaches to psychology.[14]

It may well be that many teachers believe that their values are humanistic. However, from the point of view of social scientists, much that goes on in classrooms is stereotyped, manipulative, and based on conflicting value orientations.[15]

We are undoubtedly concerned with a problem that is of vital importance to education and indeed to civilization. Our ignorance is great and our knowledge meager, but our need to learn and to act is urgent. Our social problems, both national and international emphasize this urgency.

Looking at the societal need, Gardner analyzed the problem as follows:

> We are beginning to understand how to educate for renewal but we must deepen that understanding. If we indoctrinate the young person in an elaborate set of fixed beliefs, we are ensuring his early obsolescence. The alternative is to develop skills, attitudes, habits of mind and the kinds of knowledge and understanding that will be the instruments of continuous change and growth on the part of the young person. Then we will have fashioned *a system that provides for its own continuous renewal.*[16]

In the last analysis, only the valuing teacher can ensure a classroom environment designed to encourage the development of the valuing process in children.

---

* Labels are inadequate and not very meaningful. I use this one to give the general emphasis without clarifying the specific details.

[14] *See* Arthur Combs and Donald Snygg. *Individual Behavior: A Perceptual Approach to Behavior,* 2nd ed. New York: Harper and Row, 1959; Abraham H. Maslow. *Toward A Psychology of Being.* Princeton, New Jersey: Van Nostrand, 1962; Carl Rogers. *On Becoming A Person.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1961; Frank T. Severin, editor. *Humanistic Viewpoints in Psychology.* A Book of Readings. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1965.

[15] *See* Jules Henry. *Culture Against Man.* New York: Random House, 1963; Seymour B. Sarason, Kenneth Davidson and Burton Black. *The Preparation of Teachers.* New York: Wiley and Sons, 1962; Donald N. Michael. *The Next Generation: The Prospects Ahead for the Youth of Today and Tomorrow.* New York: Vintage Books, 1965.

[16] John W. Gardner. *Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society.* New York: Harper Colophon, 1965 edition. c. 1963.

MIDDLE AND UPPER GRADES

(Continued from page 40)

Farm[10] were studied in light of the Brinton thesis. At the termination of the study, the children understood the causes of revolution and some might have even resolved the value question regarding the justification if not of revolution, *per se,* then of a particular revolution. However, it is very doubtful if the children had any empathy for revolutionaries attempting to achieve equality of rights. The problem became one of attempting to have the children feel as nearly as possible how people can be moved to revolt. To this end the following situation evolved.

One day shortly following their discussions on revolution, a "new" teacher who was to replace the "regular" teacher was introduced to the class. The "new" teacher then changed existing classroom procedures. The children who had been seated in a semicircular grouping were separated by the "new" teacher into two groups on the basis of eye color. One group was composed of only blue-eyed children, the other group contained other-color-eyed children. Any contact between the two groups was forbidden. Two separate doors for entrance to and exit from the classroom were used, one by the blue-eyed group and one by the other-colored-eye group. Separate toilet facilities, water fountains and lunchroom tables were assigned to the two groups. The "new" teacher informed the blue-eyed children that they were to sit only in the seats at the rear of the school bus when coming to or returning from school. The blue-eyed children were made to feel inferior in other ways because their toilets and drinking fountains were located at a greater distance from the classroom and because their table in the lunchroom was in a less desirable location. Separation of the two groups was reinforced by taking the children to the playground and lunchroom using different doors for both groups and by having children use the different tables while eating their lunches. Complete and total segregation of the blue-eyed group from the rest of the class was accomplished approximately one hour after the "new" teacher had entered the classroom. It was at this point that the "new" teacher left the classroom intimating that he would return again the following day and that the "old" or "regular" teacher would now resume her role. The children reacted immediately after the "new" teacher left the classroom. They demanded that they be allowed to resume their former semi-circular seating arrangement in spite of the warnings that the "new" teacher would return. Several children suggested that they act as a delegation to the principal to urge the dismissal of the "new" teacher. Other children requested permission to telephone their parents in order to be taken home and hopefully transferred to other rooms or schools. Still other children vowed never to return to school and others even suggested various means, violent and otherwise, of ridding themselves of the "new" teacher.

---

[10] George Orwell. *Animal Farm.* New York: The New American Library Inc., 1946.

After further venting of feeling and some discussion of their situation, the children began to realize that they had been suggesting revolutionary measures as a means of improving their lot for much the same reasons that other groups had revolted at other times and in other places. For the first and only time in their lives these children were able to appreciate how and why people can be driven to revolt.

The children were now in the optimum position of fully understanding the causes of revolution (the cognitive realm) and of having participated in a revolutionary movement of sorts (the affective realm). They were adequately prepared to make the value judgment concerning the use of revolution as a means of achieving equality of rights. From this point it was a relatively simple matter to make the transition to a discussion concerning the "Negro Revolution."

The subtitle of this paper is "A Rationale for Teaching But Not Transmitting Values." In totalitarian countries the rigid transmission of one value system is what is taught in school, whereas in a democracy such as ours it seems proper that education, and especially the education of young children, should be concerned with teaching them not only understanding about their own culture and its values but about other cultures and other value systems as well. In addition, it is incumbent upon our schools to teach children the skills necessary to make intelligent choices among the alternatives and to create situations whereby feelings about value questions may be appreciated. The point of view presented is neither novel nor unique; ~~however,~~ it is one about which teachers should take a firm position.

LEARNING RESOURCES

(Continued from page 42)

Additional evidence from film research suggests that for the influence of films on attitudes to be lasting, a number of films meeting the above criteria must be used over a considerable length of time. Of course, there may always be the exception of a film so powerful and so perfectly matched to audience predispositions and purposes that it may have lasting effects.

Role playing is another learning activity having a number of attributes that support the examination of values and attitudes. One is that practically all elementary school children can readily engage in this activity, becoming more perceptive and adept at dealing with human conflicts as they advance to the upper grades. Because role playing requires a certain spontaneity and is unscripted, it lends itself to the immediate analysis of many kinds of human situations. Using the front of fictitious names, role playing also affords protection for the individual who is defending or espousing a point of view. If a participant is taken to task by his classmates, his defense is that he was merely the mouthpiece for the other person he represented.

Referring to the process of value internalization, as suggested by the *Taxonomy*, higher level organization of feeling will be assisted if the teacher engages the pupils in an objective analysis of the problem explored. For those readers who may not have had much experience in role playing, the following suggestions may be useful.

1. In setting the stage for role playing, ask the children for problems *they* wish to explore. List these on the chalkboard, *but make no qualitative remarks.*
2. Ask them to choose the problem they wish to act out.
3. Discuss the details of the problem so that the participants will know specific kinds of points to express.
4. Ask for volunteers for the various roles, being careful not to force any child into a role. If the class appears reluctant to participate, forego role playing until a more propitious moment.
5. Let the children choose names for the actors. Prepare name tags to provide the "protection" element in role playing.
6. If the role playing "wanders," interrupt to ask for a reappraisal of the roles or the situation.
7. Since role playing does not require a prescribed beginning or ending, the teacher should be alert to discontinue it at the moment it appears that the problem has been explored adequately.
8. As a variation, ask another group to role play the same situation showing how the conflict and its solution may have developed in a different direction.
9. Help the class to organize its thoughts about the elements of the problem and the factors that remain to be explored, thus moving higher on the internalization hierarchy suggested by the *Taxonomy*.

The important points to remember in summary are that values in the elementary social studies may be developed successfully with a variety of learning resources if the teacher (1) is cognizant of the characteristics of values as suggested in the *Taxonomy*, (2) provides learning experiences that promote personal involvement, and (3) requires overt response to and objective examination of the factors involved in the value or attitude.

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION: THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

focus on skills

JOHN JAROLIMEK, *Editor*

BOARD OF ADVISORS

CHARLOTTE CRABTREE
Assistant Professor of Education
University of California
Los Angeles, California

ELEANOR GRAHAM
Consultant in Social Science
Metropolitan Public Schools
Nashville, Tennessee

ADELENE HOWLAND
Director of Elementary Education
Mount Vernon Public Schools
Mount Vernon, New York

MARY LEWIS
Elementary Social Studies Supervisor
Cincinnati Public Schools
Cincinnati, Ohio

JEAN MATHESON
Director of Elementary Education
Sarasota Public Schools
Sarasota, Florida

JOHN D. MCAULAY
Professor of Elementary Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

JOHN U. MICHAELIS
Professor of Education
University of California
Berkeley, California

VINCENT R. ROGERS
Professor of Elementary Education
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

FRANK TEMPEST
Elementary Social Studies Teacher
Division of Instructional Services
Denver Public Schools
Denver, Colorado

GILBERT M. WILSON
Chairman, Department of Elementary Education
Boston University
Boston, Massachusetts

The Role of Skills in Elementary Social Studies

by HELEN MCCRACKEN CARPENTER
Professor of History
Trenton State College

THE gentle groundswell of change that characterized social studies instruction for many decades has become in the last few years a volcanic eruption of colloquy, publication, experimentation, and reform. From all indications, the streams of educational lava can be expected to well forth at an even greater rate in the next few years. The extent to which this flow is likely to seep into the classrooms to benefit the social studies teaching and learning of the three Americans in every ten now enrolled in formal education cannot be assessed at this time. Herein lies the difficulty in attempting to take bearings on the current situation in any definite way. Analysis, of necessity at this time, involves factors that are fluid.

Skill development in elementary social studies is not at the forefront of attention in the current ferment. Of the forty projects within the national spotlight, less than a fourth deal in any way with the elementary grades and most of these focus on subject-matter content or materials. Only three touch the core of concern here, and the findings of these are not yet available. It is necessary then to look at implications of general developments in considering the function of skills in elementary social studies.

POINTS OF CONTINUING AGREEMENT

Skill development has always been recognized as an important responsibility of elementary education. In fact, the need to teach young citizens the three R's was advanced as a major justification whenever and wherever the drive to establish public schools was underway. Concern for competence in reading, written expression, and arithmetic, now

Elementary Education Supplement
published four times a year.
Financed by the MARY G. KELTY FUND

dignified as "the new math," is still central to the goals and curriculum for six- to twelve-year-olds. Achievement in these basic skills is of vital concern to social studies instruction because reading with all its varied purposes and forms—words, pictures, charts, graphs, tables, maps—parallels with increasing utility, as an avenue to learning in this field, the growing maturity of the child; mathematics supplies the foundation necessary to progress in developing a sense of time and chronology; and the expression of ideas and understandings in writing is, next to behavior, the truest yardstick of comprehension. As horizons in education widened, other skills were added to the program. Examples include the cluster concerned with locating, organizing, evaluating, and applying information; communicating orally; participating in group undertakings; listening; and observing. The relevancy of all these to progress in social studies is admitted and responsibility for fostering competence is accepted. Concern today then does not involve lack of recognition, by either teachers or administrators, of the need for skill development in the social studies program.

There is common acknowledgment also of the reciprocal relation of factors involved in the instructional situation. One helpful result accruing from viewpoints of psychologists shaping current thinking has been to highlight the inextricable relationship existing among all elements in the educational process—objectives, subject matter, method, materials, pupils—that has been obscured at different times in the past as the spotlight swung, over-emphasizing one factor and then another. The same is true within the category of objectives. The close connection of the cognitive to the affective realms—of knowledge and intellectual skills and abilities to attitudes, appreciations, and values—is manifest. Knowledge supplies the substance for the development of skills and provides standards necessary to value formation. Intellectual skills function both in the gaining of knowledge and in the process of valuing. In turn, affective elements color interpretation of knowledge and the effectiveness of skill development.

Among the several classifications of goals to which social studies teaching is directed, agreement is general that the development of skills should receive major attention. The scales tip heavier to skills than to knowledge because of the rapid rate in the obsolescence of much information today and, therefore, of the diminished transfer value of knowledge. Skills, however, represent more generalized learnings and thus are likely to be applicable continually in all facets of an individual's life. With reference to value formation, skill development weighs somewhat heavier for different reasons. The heart of the matter here concerns substantive values—the qualities of mind and character constituting moral excellence in an individual as well as concepts of ideals, customs, and institutions necessary to the good society. In a pluralistic nation like ours, social studies instruction in public schools cannot approach this area head-on. It *can* teach the process of making value judgments. Because skills are generally considered to pertain to *process* rather than to *product* of learning, skill development provides children with basic tools for arriving at their own values.

Unanimity continues also on the identification of skills that should be developed. The new social studies incorporates no categories beyond those set forth in the 33rd Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies.[1] Hence, on need, relative importance, and scope of skills in elementary social studies, thinking has changed little in recent years. It is in the approach to skill development involving method and organization that challenging considerations arise from the current stirrings.

Focus on Inquiry through Problem-Solving

Accelerated exploration of the nature of intellectual growth as a key to improvement of educational experiences has been a major trend in the ferment of the last decade. Perhaps the most seminal single stimulus to the movement was the appearance of Bruner's capsule-size *Process of Education*,[2] reporting findings of experimental programs in science and mathematics as well as the thinking of scholars from a variety of fields participating in the 1959 Woods Hole Conference. Renewed attention to inquiry, or discovery, as a method of learning to think is the facet of the total trend with the most pertinency in the consideration of skill development. Inquiry is considered to be the process by which a child, more or less independently, comes to perceive relationships among factors in his environment or between ideas that previously had no meaningful connection. The new understandings evolve through application and reorganization of past experiences. Insight and self-confidence grow as the child meets successfully situations of increasing abstractness and complexity; as he moves up the ladder from observation, classification, and application to generalization.

Thus the inquiry approach views the learner as an active thinker—seeking, probing, processing data from his environment toward a variety of destinations along paths best suited to his own mental characteristics. It rejects passiveness as an ingredient of effective learning and the concept of the mind as a reservoir for the storage of knowledge presented through expository instruction directed toward a predetermined, closed end. The inquiry method seeks to avoid the dangers of rote memorization and verbalization as well as the hazard of fostering dependency in citizens as learners and thinkers. Advantages of the inquiry approach are considered to be in self-direction as a motivating factor for learning and in development of a form of mental behavior essential in a democratic society. The measure of ultimate success in education through inquiry lies in the degree to which the teacher becomes unnecessary as a guide.

---

[1] Helen McCracken Carpenter, editor. *Skill Development in Social Studies.* Thirty-third Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1963.

[2] Jerome S. Bruner. *The Process of Education.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1960.

The parallelism of ideas such as these being examined today to John Dewey's concepts of long ago is evident. Dewey's belief in the development of reflective thinking by means of inquiry shaped the philosophy and functioning of the children's school founded at the University of Chicago in the mid-1890's.[3] In the years following, Dewey elaborated his ideas on reflective thinking and its relation to education in a democratic society[4] that Kilpatrick[5] as his disciple helped keep dominant into the Twenties and Thirties. Although the last three decades have witnessed many changes in American education, the desirability of developing citizens who are independent and skilled inquirers has been recognized in theory even though efforts to realize the goal languished. To Dewey and to leaders in the current movement, an important approach, or strategy, facilitating inquiry is problem-solving. Dewey's analysis of the mental state involved has become a classic,

> . . . *reflective* thinking, in distinction from other operations to which we apply the name of thought, involves 1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty, in which thinking originates, and 2) an act of searching, hunting, inquiring, to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity.[6]

Although slight differences in classification of the elements involved in problem-solving exist, the pattern is essentially as follows but does not necessarily proceed neatly in the rank order given:

1. an awareness and identification stage
   Consisting of a feeling of disturbance, perception of factors involved, and clarification of the core of the obstacle
2. a data-processing stage
   Including collecting, organizing, and evaluating relevant information
3. an analytical-synthesizing stage
   Involving comparing, contrasting, inferring, speculating, and applying in hypothesis formation
4. a critical, testing stage
   Constituting probing the validity of hypotheses, reconstructing data, reaching plausible conclusions in the form of tentative principles useful in the next encounter

These ideas seem like old friends to many elementary school teachers who have long used problems as a means of getting their pupils to think critically. The current emphasis on inquiry, however, highlights interesting considerations about skills and the problems approach as a means for developing them.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SKILL DEVELOPMENT

Most important is the fact that the problems approach, as often interpreted, does not necessarily promote the goals of the inquiry method. The crux of the matter concerns the difference between inductive and deductive learning. Inquiry emphasizes the inductive process. Learning experiences set up in problem form may, or may not, call for inductive procedures, depending on the nature of the problem and what the learner is required to do. For example, if a problem is posed as "How do the religious beliefs of some people in India increase famine there?", the learner is pointed toward religion and hunger. The relationship is established; his job is to prove it with specific data. If the question is put a little less specifically, "Why does India continue to have a shortage of food?", there is no real change in the nature of the task especially if sub-problems are attached, such as, "What is the population of India?" "What methods of farming are used?" "What does India have to offer other countries in trade?" This learning experience is not designed to give pupils an opportunity to develop and test hypotheses; they are called on to proceed deductively. A corollary to this approach often is the use of materials that supply the answers organized in the same way the information is requested.

If, on the other hand, the problem is posed in a more open-ended way, such as "What accounts for problems facing India today?", and materials are provided that give data of various kinds—geographic, demographic, cultural, political—the task of finding, assimilating, evaluating, testing, rejecting, re-applying, deciding is left to the child. There is room for disagreement among pupils on the relative importance of causes and the effectiveness of possible courses of action. The learner is given the chance to draw relationships himself rather than to explain or support those made for him. The strategies employed by a child working inductively are revealing indicators of thinking style and intellectual growth.[7]

---

[3] John Dewey. *University Record*. 1: 417-422, No. 32; November 6, 1896.

[4] ———. *Democracy and Education*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916; *How We Think*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1933.

[5] William H. Kilpatrick. *The Project Method*. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1919.

[6] *Op. cit., How We Think*, p. 116.

[7] For more detailed discussion of these aspects than is permitted here, *see* Fannie R. Shaftel, Charlotte Crabtree, and Vivian Rushworth. "Problem Solving in the Elementary School" in *The Problems Approach and the Social Studies*, edited by Richard E. Gross, Raymond H. Muessig, and George L. Fersh. Curriculum Bulletin No. 9, revised edition. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960. pp. 25-47; Char-

(Continued on page 233)

Skills Teaching in the Primary Grades

by JOHN JAROLIMEK[*]
Professor of Elementary Education
University of Washington

THE term *skill* is applied to the ability to do something with some degree of expertness in repeated performances. To have a skill or to be skillful, however, is usually something of a relative matter. The kindergarten child is highly skillful in his use of language when compared with a two-year old. We would say that he is less skillful in most things he does when compared with an upper-grade pupil. Adequacy of skill development must not only take into account the expertness of performance *per se*, but the age and prior background of the learner.

When children enter the primary grades, they have already developed a number of skills. They can carry on conversations with others, follow directions, take care of many of their personal needs, play simple games; some can read. Such skills are essential for ordinary living. Left unattended and untutored, the child will improve these skills simply through continued use. The refinement of the skills the child has when he comes to school and the learning of others that are introduced as a part of the curriculum will be greatly enhanced through careful and systematic instruction. From the moment the child enters school, his continued success in the school environment will depend to a significant degree on the extent to which he is able to learn and use essential skills.

There can be no doubt that well developed skills enhance the ability to do other school-related tasks. Conversely, poorly developed skills result in arrested school progress. Pupils who are off to a poor start in their skill development in the primary grades fall farther and farther behind in their overall achievement. Eventually the deficit accumulates to a point that becomes overwhelming to the pupil and nearly impossible for him to overcome. School dropouts at the high school level invariably present histories of skill deficiencies that can be traced to the earliest grades in school. Skill competence strengthens the child's positive perception of himself, an important component of school success. The child uses skills to deal with the social world confronting him, and consequently, skills contribute directly to his social competence. It would be hard to underestimate the vital role primary grade teachers play in ensuring a successful introduction of the child to the skills program.

In the primary grades it is almost impossible to separate social studies skills from the skills objectives of the total primary grade program. There is no particular reason to label certain skills as being the unique province of the social studies, providing essential skills get the instructional attention they deserve. The advantage of singling out social studies skills in the curriculum is to ensure that they *are* included and taught systematically. Moreover, skills presented in a social studies context can often be taught in a more realistic and functional setting than when presented either in isolation or in the framework of another curriculum area, as for example, in the reading program.

In the first article of this supplement, Professor Carpenter has noted that in spite of the concern for social studies revision in recent years, no new skills have been identified. Essential skills persist in their importance in modern programs even though there have been some shifts in emphasis. Uniqueness in skills teaching does not come through the discovery of some new skill but in imaginative approaches to the teaching of those that have always been regarded as important. The social studies skills with which the primary grade teacher is concerned are less complex variations of skills that continue to receive attention throughout the total program.

One large group of such skills deals basically with a variety of intellectual operations. Thinking, asking questions, using language, solving problems, interpreting stories and pictures, and making simple analyses are a few examples of skills of this type. In most cases they are related to the informational content of the program. They do not deal basically with *getting* information but with interpreting, processing, and using information. In the following example, notice how the teacher is building thinking skills with her first graders:

> The teacher selected a picture from a magazine advertising a dishwasher. The picture shows a young mother removing sparkling clean dishes from the washer while her daughter (about a six-year old) looks on. One can see a bright, modern kitchen and the landscape greenery through the kitchen window. The teacher prepared the following questions in connection with this picture:

---

[*] This article is a substitute for one of the same title that was solicited from another author but not received.

1. Is the mother taking the dishes out or putting them in the washer?
2. Is this a large or small family?
3. Does this family have a comfortable home?
4. What season of the year is it?
5. What might other members of the family be doing at this time?
6. Do you think the lady is the little girl's mother?
7. Is this a city home or a farm home?

The purpose of this exercise is not to establish right or wrong answers to the questions. Indeed, it would be impossible to determine precisely the rightness or wrongness of some of them. For example, one could not be sure about the size of the family by the number of dishes used; the family may have had guests, or the dishes may be an accumulation from more than one meal. Similarly, the season of the year could not be verified by the presence of greenery because some parts of the country are green the year around. Pupils could be expected to point out these possibilities, and while they may select what they think is the most likely answer, the door should be kept open to the consideration of other alternatives. In activities of this type, it is more important to consider a variety of possibilities and have pupils give reasons why a response is plausible than to agree on a right answer. (This degree of flexibility would not be acceptable, however, in considering factual questions where correctness can be established. Factual questions serve a different purpose from those designed to encourage reflective thought.)

Other examples of intellectual skills can be developed around such situations as these:

1. Identifying sequences—What happened first; what happened next; what happened last?
2. Considering alternative solutions—Can you think of another way to do it? What are some other ways the man could have solved his problems?
3. Differentiating between fact and fiction—What parts of the story are true and what parts are make-believe? How can we find out if something is true?
4. Developing sensitivity to words—Can you think of words that make you feel happy? Sad? Angry?
5. Predicting or speculating on outcomes of situations—How do you suppose the problem was solved? What do you suppose will happen next?

Telling pupils to think or admonishing them for not thinking are not effective methods for developing intellectual skills even though such practices in one form or another are fairly common. More productive approaches call for the pupil to respond to simple questions of the reflective type that may not have a single answer but force him to consider many alternatives, predict likely consequences of each, and decide the best course of action. There can be little if any thinking if the pupil does not have to consider alternatives in situations that involve choice or decision-making.

The importance of intellectual skills, and especially thinking skills, is often overlooked in the primary grades because of the widespread belief that one gains knowledge first and then uses that knowledge for thinking purposes at some later time. As a result the development of thinking abilities of young children has not always been the concern of primary grade teachers. Children at this level were expected to build literacy and work-study skills and expand their backgrounds of information. Thinking would come later. There is no evidence to support the notion that knowledge acquisition and knowledge use in the thinking process are separate and discrete functions. In fact, the practice of disassociating a skill from its functional context is rejected as unsound practice in most other realms of skill development. It is unfortunate that it should persist in teaching pupils the most important skill of all, namely, thinking.

A second large group of skills important to the primary grade social studies involves social relationships. They include ordinary social skills needed for harmonious living and working with others, as well as those more structured skills related to instructional processes, i.e., working on a small committee, contributing to a group project, participating in class discussions, and so forth. These skills are the concern of the total curriculum of the elementary school, of course, but the social studies provide excellent settings in which to teach them because of the nature of instructional processes associated with this area of the curriculum.

The most important point that could be made in connection with social relationship skills is that they *need to be taught*. It is often assumed that all that is required are activities in which pupils can apply and practice them. Consequently, pupils are forced to learn the skills of social interaction on a trial and error basis. In the process the teacher may become annoyed, isolate those pupils who were not "cooperative," and return the others to their seats to a more formal instructional posture. While there might be times when a child should be separated from the others, no child ever learned the skills of social interaction while he was in isolation. Neither do classes learn such skills in formal instructional settings where social interaction is not allowed or is discouraged.

A third category of social studies skills has to do mainly with the use of learning resources and tools including simple map and globe reading, knowing where to go for information needed, how to speak before the class, reading signs and symbols, and other similar operations. They are commonly called work-study skills. The need for instructional attention to these skills has been generally accepted through the

(Continued on page 234)

Building Skills for Social Study in the Middle Grades

by O. L. Davis, Jr.
Associate Professor of Education
The University of Texas

STUDYING social phenomena involves children in abundant knowledge. Not only is adequate prior knowledge necessary to embarking on a study, the acquisition of increased knowledge is a desired instructional objective. But social study also requires skills and should also result in increased skill development. Indeed, to neglect skills in social study is not to study at all.

Basic to social study is the development of sensitivity and openness to situations, data, and problems. This essential awareness, dulled too frequently in the first school years, is not uncommonly expressed in pupils' apathy toward the social studies in the middle grades. Diagnosis must admit that most middle grade pupils are confronted with a real problem: how to "get through" the mass of conclusions with which they are faced. This closed and circumscribed perception of the social studies often makes the studies seem unreal and irrelevant to pupils. Consequently, skills become rituals rather than important tools for learning. Yet the important social problems and situations, and probably most of the small or trivial ones, are not closed to study except as individuals believe them to be. Corrective measures would include a variety of procedures.

As a beginning, pupils could be encouraged to trust their own experiencing. Does the situation seem real to me? Have I had an experience like that one? What might I do in such a situation? I've never known a name like that; isn't it interesting? To ask such questions is to be personally open and engaged with a true problem and to encounter and consider real data.

Another practical step is to foster pupils' awareness of and acquaintance with multiple data sources. Knowing that additional data might reveal presently unrecognized dimensions to the study of a situation encourages inquiry. For example, fifth graders might consider: If we had a letter from one of Custer's troopers written before departing for his final battle, might it help us understand the ideas about Indians held by the frontier cavalrymen? Or, in our study of the development of cities, how would telephone directories over a period of years be helpful? Openness to sources of data can take many forms, but it must exist and develop continuously if adequate social study is to proceed.

Observation by pupils provides perceptions and information in their study; it is the means by which they gather data. To observe, one must know how to focus his senses and know the relevant sources. In most social studies programs, pupils' observation is restricted to reading and, as a consequence, social study is grotesquely identified by many as reading the textbook.

Reading is more than an appropriate observational procedure. Because most materials, both primary and secondary, are printed, increasing skill in reading is essential to social study. Nevertheless, reading must not be seen as the only or even the most important skill as pupils study various topics. Although most pupils use reading as a means of gaining information, instructional strategy should include an option for some to read very little or even nothing. Rather than lament the low reading skills of some, or berate school policy that does not provide social studies materials at several reading levels, constructive alternatives are possible. For example, when pupils examine a picture of an English town to identify architectural features that differ from their own town, they are both *observing* and *using* the text.

The adopted textbook, long represented as the villain by reformers of classroom instruction, persists as an important observational source. Over the years social studies texts have been improved; they are accepted to be accurately written, however general, and to contain a number of aids to pupils. Maps, pictures, charts, questions, suggested activities, color, and type size variability help make the contemporary textbook a flexible instructional resource. Nevertheless, it is abused primarily by misconceiving it as being like a novel or like a set of footprints everyone must follow at the same time and at the same pace. A textbook is not meant to be read from cover to cover —for the story. It has large divisions and small segments. A unit in the middle of the book may be studied appropriately before a section at the first of the book. Some segments need not be read by every pupil. These comments are not to suggest that textbooks have no logical organization or that they comtain non-essential information. Rather, they are to assert that classes and pupils have a logic to their study and therefore require information that may differ from that of other groups. Moreover, the pupils may need the information organized in a way that does not conform to the organizational pattern of the text.

Pupils in the middle grades should also have the opportunity to gather data—through reading—from a number of sources other than their textbook. Improved elementary school libraries usually have standard references available, such as encyclopedias and atlases, current periodicals, novels, and other books appropriate for use in social study. Increasingly, pupils need access to specialized reference works (*e.g.*, *Who's Who* in several fields, statistical abstracts, studies limited to a treatment of a single country, period, etc.). Modern technology now makes possible acquisition by school libraries of microfilmed materials (*e.g.*, books, magazines, newspapers). Yet, availability of a number of data sources is not, in itself, sufficient.

Take the case of one sixth grader. To encourage the pupils to consult several references, the teacher required that they list at least six books they had used in the preparation of their report. For one boy who chose as his study, "England in World War II," this requirement clearly frustrated study. Must he read *all* of the six books he found? ("I don't have time to read so much.") Would one book he liked (a collection of photographs) qualify? How could he "take" something from each book for his report? ("This would make my report a mish-mash.") There was no attention to notetaking, to paraphrasing, to "copying"; no attention to important and irrelevant observations nor to noting an observer's own impressions. Under such conditions, observation becomes chaotic, random, haphazard, and, not uncommonly, yields sloppy study procedures and work habits, not to mention careful and guarded deception and dishonesty designed to satisfy the requirements.

But in many situations observation needs to be expanded beyond reading. Pictures, films, filmstrips, recordings, and maps and globes are data sources and require specific skills for their use. Looking for impressions, examining details, viewing for specific objectives, listening—these serve to illustrate the wide range of opportunities to observe non-printed material.

Essential to most social study is observation using oneself, other people, and the realia of social life. Older children must be aided in understanding the strengths and limitations of their own personal observations, including factors like distortion due to emotion, selective perception of details, and general regularity of behavior. These skills, for example, can help pupils look for and note differences in traffic patterns to and from town at different times of day, the routes and frequency of use by a boy going to play and a father driving to work, and reactions of a group of people to a street corner scuffle. Other children, adults (including the teacher), and places away from school can yield relevant and valuable information in some study situations. Stereotyped by the terms of "interview" and "field trip," the activities may lose some of their power. Yet, possibility for such observations needs to be provided. The visits of a few pupils to the neighborhood political party office can insert a significant dimension into a study of an election; so also can pupils' reports of reactions of two neighbors to a campaign issue. Pupil involvement in planning to gather data in these ways adds other facets to this observational skill.

In all observation in social study, several factors are critical. Observation is more than seeing and listening; it is the *focused* employment of all senses. Seeing and listening will be used most, but also important are *touching* (the brittleness of the century-old map; the smoothness of an oft-used churn plunger), *smelling* (the aroma of the perfume bar in the department store; the odors from the stockyard), and *tasting* (pemmican and unleavened bread). Allowance must be made for children to observe their own feelings and actions. (For example, how did I feel when I watched the film of President Kennedy's assassination? What do I remember doing as I came to school this morning?) In the process of observation, children must also recognize the incompleteness and possible distortion of the data gathered. Such an awareness makes them better prepared to use the data in making inferences, deriving conclusions, and understanding the limitations of their study.

Even before observation begins, and recurring throughout a study, pupils make predictions, hunches, guesses, and speculate as to the probable relevance of types of evidence. Recognition of information already possessed makes possible fewer diversions and helps keep efforts focused. Decisions about which data to gather and what priorities to assign to various tasks are made, not only at the outset but throughout the inquiry. Of continuing importance, also, is attention to the adequacy of data sources. (For example, to what extent can we give credibility to this wire service account, this signed article, and this report of an interview? For our study of Israel, is the textbook map adequate? What is the map's date? Are there maps that were made at other times that would be important?) Recognition that additional evidence is needed or would be helpful (even evidence unavailable locally) is important, too, as are continued openness to various types of data and to suggestions of possible sources.

Data gathered remain bits and pieces until compared, contrasted, analyzed, and organized. The actual involvement of pupils in these processes is important, but so are their decisions as to how to proceed.

For example, is a chronological framework appropriate? Would a topical framework be better? Rather than the assignment, "Make a two-step outline," the question, "What data seem to go together?", is preferred. Helpful at various times are summaries of single elements and of the total situation. To add variety and to provide for the use of a broad range of skills, summaries can be composed in different forms —oral, narrative, pictorial, and graphic. The preparation of a summary may well suggest additional comparisons. In a study of natural resources of one state, for example, hydroelectric power of several states and countries was compared by making a bar graph. Pupils' conclusions should also be compared with those advanced by others. It may be profitable, too, for pupils to contrast the varied conclusions of authorities.

Pupils must be helped to understand and use analytic techniques throughout their study. Analysis is certainly involved in problem definition. The process is also employed in developing plans for a study (prior to and during its conduct), in proposing hypotheses, working with assumptions, testing (affirming and rejecting) assumptions, as well as in gathering and using data. As pupils' analysis proceeds, they need to learn to defer judgment, to assert tentative conclusions, to consult with others about their first conclusions, and, yet, at some point to take a stand on conclusions and act.

Not all social study concludes by pupils' making a judgment (evaluation) although various judgments may have been exercised during the study. For an act to be evaluative, criteria must be employed. Experience in establishing criteria is an obvious asset to the general development of pupils. A well conducted study will provide them with frequent opportunities to learn and use certain generally agreed upon criteria, both external and internal, to the message being judged—evidence, summary, generalization, idea, product. For example, a class can list criteria guiding the selection of topics for individual study (*e.g.*, is the topic specific enough? Are there enough sources of data?) Pupils should begin to understand and gain increasing skill in applying tests of internal criticism (*e.g.*, accuracy of reporting, ability to tell the truth).

One of the most neglected social study skills is the ability to develop a message from accumulated evidence (synthesis). Too frequently, discrete data are emphasized at the expense of pupils' generalizations. Or pupils are given a generalization without their being aware of or understanding the data on which it rests. Generalizing, however, is not the only form synthesis should take. It may include developing plans for individual and group reports and presentations as well as the actual development of the report —oral, written, dramatic, pictorial. Teachers need to recognize, of course, that pupils reports copied from one or several sources, under an assignment to "make a report," are patently *not* synthesis. A probable necessary requirement for the exercise of this thinking ability is that most of the process and the product are personal, that is, the pupil's.

In the middle grades increased attention to the use of language in social study is merited. Accuracy is an obvious objective, but there are others as well. Pupils can begin to learn to detect distortion, bias, and propaganda in messages. They can learn to look for and recognize the impact of usage. For example, Jefferson and his colleagues might have chosen a number of words rather than "necessary" in the opening sentence of the Declaration of Independence. What are some of the words? How do they sound as substitutes? Why do you think they chose "necessary"? Concern for the nature of metaphor is vital as is practice in thinking about and with metaphors. Also important is attention to slogans, their logic, appeal, and uses. Language experiences in social studies not only foster a more precise understanding of language but help pupils develop skill in their own use of language.

The middle grades offer vastly increased opportunities for pupils to develop interpersonal skills of working with others. Although most social study is properly an individual quest, pupils need not work alone on all tasks. Their study is often enhanced by working with others in small and in large groups. Skills for such activities do not appear full-blown even when adequately stimulated in the primary grades. Consequently, a skill development program begins by engaging pupils in short tasks with limited objectives. Pupils must have opportunities to analyze what they did in the group activity (*e.g.*, Did everyone have a chance to offer suggestions? What actions seemed to get in our way?) In the process and with teacher guidance, they develop insights that will aid them in a decision to work on a project as individuals or in a group. They also recognize circumstances in which a group needs or does not need explicit rules and to be able to formulate the appropriate structure (rules) for group action. In these and other dimensions of group work, pupils learn to suggest ideas and to respect the opinions of others. They learn to differ with others' ideas without rejecting them and to deal honestly with feelings. For children to gain such skills, they may engage in authentic projects, in role playing, simulation, and in many other activities.

Skills of social study are not discrete. Although they are described separately, they relate intimately to other skills. They may suffer diminished attraction when isolated from the knowledge to which they are connected in the instructional setting. Nevertheless, the skills briefly noted in this discussion, and others, have substantive elements, too. For example, recog-

(Continued on page 233)

Using Learning Resources in Social Studies Skill Development

by CLARENCE O. BERGESON
Director of Instructional Resources
State University College
Geneseo, New York

DEVELOPING skills for dealing with social and political problems must obviously be an important area of concern to teachers of the social studies. True, in the secondary school one might well expect that pupils will bring with them many if not most of the needed basic study skills. Elementary teachers, on the other hand, cannot ignore the important need for much basic skill development as younger children approach the task of understanding the people in their expanding world.

Admittedly this is both an extensive and complex task. Its complexity increases with each new communication, transportation, and political innovation. Technology, the handmaiden of this "progress," adds its own unique burden of change. However, for the teacher who is willing to explore these changes, help exists in the technology itself. It can provide effective learning through the use of new channels and more efficient means of using older channels. Such learning resources have many potential uses in developing social studies skills in young children.

Discussion of learning resources in this context needs to be based on the recognition that many of these materials are "newer media," and as "media" are themselves skills to be learned by the elementary school child. Teachers must systematically assess and prepare for such skill learning before any intelligent approach to using media for the learning of other skills can be successfully attempted.

What does the child see in the wandering lines on the pages of an atlas, lines that adults so quickly recognize as a map? What does a child understand in the varying shades of gray, deep blacks and shiny whites, the straight and curving lines that modern adults so easily accept as black and white photographs?

How clearly does a child understand the implications of a graphic caricature of the president of the United States, the symbol of a foreign land, or the stereotypes of good and bad as used in cartoons and comic strip presentations? To what extent can a child "read" into a motion picture the intended passage of time between scenes, the rapid transposition of location, the manipulated sequence of events punctuated with sophisticated cinematic techniques?

Would it not be fair to say that their ability in any of these media skills all too often develops without guidance and without any certainty that needed levels of proficiency exist?

These children live in a world that operates with many media, not just one. They are both a product of that multi-media world and its heirs. To be illiterates in any of these media when meeting that world is to court disaster. For their future and the future use of these learning resources in the school the children must learn a wide variety of modern communication skills.

Fortunately, literacy can often be taught by using the very media in question. A class and a teacher can look at a picture, not only as social documentation but also as a picture. How has the picture been distorted or determined by the use of a special lens, a special angle, a special frame? What does it say and what does it not say?

Who took the picture and what might have been his biases? After all, a picture is at most a very selected view, a momentary cross-section of a dynamic event. Even the singular aspect of size must be interpreted by both photographer and viewer. To a greater or less degree, then, the picture is an interpretation; it is not a fact. It is a medium that must be learned and can be learned through a critical approach by teacher and pupil.

Map "reading" skills, though universally recognized as important, still cannot be overemphasized. Most teachers know about the sand box or table-top display as possible beginning experiences with map meanings. A flannelboard or a hook-and-loop board provides a good surface for more abstract approaches. The overhead projector will present simple map materials as well as a large variety of commercially produced map transparencies. Kits demonstrating concepts of map projection and distortion give opportunities for developing more sophisticated understandings. Numerous commercially produced films and filmstrips help build skills in map meanings and map usage.

All media require an overt effort on the part of the communicator and the perceiver to understand the "grammar," the "rules of composition," before effective learning can be expected. This is doubly true in the social studies where the events of man and his world are no longer "documented" exclusively on the printed page, but where these events can be seen, heard, and felt through an expanding array of media and materials. The elementary teacher of social studies must be knowledgeable and sophisticated in using these resources. He must help pupils develop similar skills.

Having said that media are skills that one must learn and having recognized the multi-media world pupils must face, it becomes only natural to consider these media and related learning resources as teaching vehicles and techniques for learning other needed skills. In other words, these learning resources can act as tools for meeting effectively those principles of learning that are active in skill development.

Since all too often newer media and materials conjure up a passive role for the intended audience, it might be appropriate to begin this part of the discussion by remembering that pupils learn better or benefit more when doing the things they are learning rather than only witnessing a task. Of course, a motion picture documents an event. But as such the teacher should make certain it enters the learning situation as a result of the pupil's search or need for "evidence" on a topic, problem, or project.

Pupils can actively use modern media in a number of ways. Modern automatic equipment makes possible classroom produced motion pictures—a summary report, an event recreated, a documentary of a field trip developed by the pupils and teacher. The chalkboard, and its modern counterpart, the overhead projector, can serve as a recorder of progress in pupil discussions or outlining the progress of group planning sessions.

Television production facilities (where available) can be a vehicle for class project reporting, for pupil interviews of local and visiting specialists not available at class time, for pupil-prepared dramatized social or historic situations, and for class directed current events presentations. Closed-circuit systems with video recording equipment bring to classrooms the opportunity to organize and deliver a report, interview, or presentation; view the product; criticize and refine the presentation in terms of content, organization, and techniques; and then record again.

Recording and editing audio tapes of a report and combining the refined version with slides offers similar possibilities for pupil participation. These experiences not only contribute to developing skills in each respective media but also build skills in locating and organizing needed information, in presenting such information through many media, and in viewing critically the work they and their fellow pupils have produced.

In building skills as in other types of learning, the need for the experience to be meaningful to the child is imperative. Of course, such meaningfulness should first reside in the overall curriculum, the course of study, and the assigned unit of work. Often, however, it becomes necessary to start with the "now" and work toward pupil understanding of larger goals.

Here, properly chosen learning resources can help. Of course, a diagram on a chalkboard may very well make the organization of a village or town perceptually tangible and possibly more meaningful. Motion pictures of past events in history, still pictures of the important cities of the world, bulletin board displays of community service agencies all have the possibilities of developing greater meaningfulness.

Perhaps teaching techniques are equally as important as the material one chooses. Why not include pupils in planning sessions? A small group can select a filmstrip for showing to the class. Let them prepare the introduction and lead the discussion. They are capable of some self-direction. And in the process they will generally expose that which is and is not meaningful to them.

Meaningfulness as a criterion for useful learning experiences leads directly to the principle that pupils tend to learn only that which they can perceive in a situation. Skill experiences too far beyond their present level become an enigma. Past experiences color and, in fact, control what pupil's learn.

Much is said these days of the culturally deprived. These and many other learners might more accurately be described as experientially deprived. Their home environment, their relation with parents, their community horizons, all tend to leave many children without needed experiential background for dealing with controversial issues, with newspapers and magazines, with using the library, and the like. Such deprivation poses a real problem for the teacher approaching social skill development in the elementary school child.

Modern media and materials can go far in remedying a dearth of experience in specific areas. The growth of 8 mm "single concept" loop films represents one channel for help. Remedial films, filmstrips, recordings, maps, charts, and diagrams all are as legitimate a part of the classroom as remedial reading materials.

The teacher might also provide an opportunity to "translate" from one media to another—a picture of the inauguration of a president changed into words, the data about population in a motion picture extracted and built into a graph or a diagram, or a word description developed into a chart or a drawing.

Building useful social studies skills does require meaningful, understandable, learner-involved experiences. But the child facing a need to learn a skill must have something more. How ought the pupil work with other children in a small group, on joint projects, in class activities? How should a democratic meeting be run? How does one develop an organizational outline for a topic summary? Guidance by the teacher becomes imperative.

Special step-by-step instructions become universally available when tape recorded and placed at a listening station at the back of the room, in the library, or in an independent study center. You can combine taped narration with colored slides in automatic projectors for pupils who need to see and hear about such things as example outlines or sample library cards.

Record those models of performance, of error, of excellence on audio or television tape needed as reference by class members, including such examples as proper parliamentary procedures and proper respect for fellow class members when developing group projects. Exemplify the usual steps in approaching a controversial social issue through a set of pictures. Emphasize the proper approach to reading a book by building a bulletin board display.

The teacher need not depend exclusively on himself for these models of skill performance. Commercially produced motion pictures review the steps involved in making a legislative bill into a law. Some films deal with proper and improper parliamentary procedure while still others explore good study habits closely associated to social studies skills. Filmstrips cover such topics as introducing the young pupil to the library and helping him understand the sequence of events in history, the interpretation of time, and the use of geographic tools. When programed into study tables or listening stations these materials become teacher-directed-activities delivered by remote control.

With thousands of motion pictures presently available to schools, multiple titles deal with each of the many social studies skills. One title might be used in a scheduled class discussion while another could be made available later to individuals or small groups. Where the children are very young or the school cannot provide individual pupil service, then multiple showings might satisfy.

Another technique would be to tape record small group discussions of a controversial topic. Play back these tapes for pupils to analyze the procedure used, to see if good evidence played a part in the discussion, to check if the assigned topic remained the center of attention, to notice if good social studies skills were used. Later pupils might listen to other groups, still trying to understand which procedures proved profitable for equitable group discussion.

In other words, modern media such as television, motion pictures, still pictures, and audio tape readily adapt to the need for varied replication of experiences when learning social studies skills. Once planned or prepared, these materials free the teacher for keener observation of all pupils in the class and for personal, individual help to a larger number of children.

This latter need to cope with each child as the unique entity that he obviously is, remains a major problem for the teacher. In skill development as in other types of teaching the modern and modernized types of learning resources are finally receiving recognition as potential avenues for meeting the individuality of children's needs.

A "library" of teaching/learning materials should reside in the classroom, the level varying within the collection. Introduction of concepts relating to time and the calendar, for example, may need first of all simple introductory manipulative materials—*e.g.*, moving clocks of wood and clocks built on overhead transparencies. Single concept films can range from similar introductory material to the relatively sophisticated concepts of dates in history. A child can choose and study the material he needs whether he does or does not have the teacher's direct help.

Documentary films, recorded speeches, and photographs all provide individual study opportunities. Assignments to evaluate such materials as sources of information about historic events or social institutions and agencies can help the child who needs special experiences and provide expanded horizons for children especially motivated toward a specific topic.

Let some children, at least, design their own overhead transparencies, tape record dramatizations, and prepare feltboard presentations. If possible, arrange for small groups to take less difficult, more specialized field trips, even if it is only to nearby stores.

Learning resources are avenues for exploration and development of skills for each child in a class. They should not be thought of as mass presentation procedures or group techniques exclusively but as individualized resources for unique pursuits.

Many of the resource examples and approaches cited above serve more than those principles of learning and teaching already considered. Important to skill development are those characteristics of media that provide opportunities for the pupil to see himself as he appears to others. More to the point, these media confront him with an untouched, mirror-view of his actions and his skills for his own evaluation.

The television taping of reports by pupils, of classroom discussions, of small group activities, all provide the pupil with a look at himself. An audio tape narration together with still pictures requires that the pupil perceive his report on a topic very much as other children see it. Taking a field trip planned and prepared by pupils forces them to live and learn from situations of their own design.

Under such conditions the teacher frequently changes his role from dispenser of marks to sympathetic supporter and desirable guide. The child may very well become his own most severe critic. This becomes a uniquely gratifying position for the teacher since automatically his role is constructive.

Almost a corollary to the above, and certainly not to be overlooked, is the caution that success in learning generally breeds success, and failure can induce failure. Many apparent failures can more easily be

(Continued on page 234)

Skills in the Elementary School Social Studies Curriculum

by CLIFFORD D. FOSTER
Associate Professor of Elementary Education
University of Washington

ALTHOUGH skill development is generally conceded to be one of the major outcomes of social studies education, it is the exception rather than the rule to find a school with a well-planned and fully functioning skills program as an integral part of the elementary social studies curriculum. In an examination of statements of objectives in professional textbooks and in curriculum documents, one is led to believe that the learning of skills ranks equally in importance with the acquisition of concepts and factual understandings and with the development of attitudes and values. Some would insist that skills are even more important, because they constitute the tools for learning. A closer inspection of curriculum materials, however, reveals that the objectives dealing with social studies skills frequently are not accompanied by models for the teaching of these skills. Although skills are among those learnings that are the easiest to evaluate for mastery, skills programs are often not operational to the extent that a thorough-going evaluation is possible. The unfortunate status of skills teaching in many schools is due, in part, to the nature of the curriculum itself. This paper examines some of the curricular dimensions of social studies skills teaching and learning.

Curriculum workers and teachers must give thought to various philosophical and psychological implications for skill development in the elementary school social studies program. Philosophically, a sound program of skill development is based on the assumption that the child is a feeling, thinking citizen. The skills he needs, therefore, are contained in the various processes of instruction as well as in the content of the program. If the philosophical position is one that values the acquisition of factual information to the extent that processes involved in working together, accepting responsibilities, and cooperating with others are neglected, then the program is a narrow one indeed. Psychologically, a sound program in skill development recognizes that: (1) skills are learned most efficiently when a need exists, (2) direct teaching at the point of need is necessary to establish mastery of many skills, (3) repeated opportunities are needed to practice skills in a variety of applications, (4) skills develop along a continuum throughout the elementary and secondary school program, and (5) differentiated instruction is necessary in order to meet the individual needs of pupils.

The social studies teacher must be given guidance in the selection and the teaching of skills. It is easy to overlook the importance of the need for *teaching* skills in the social studies. The teacher frequently assumes that the social studies program is one in which skills taught in reading, arithmetic, science, art, music, and related communication areas will be transferred automatically by children to social studies learning activities. This assumption belies the fact that unless those skills learned in the remainder of the curriculum are focused, with the teacher's help, on specific social studies learning tasks, most children will not transfer these skills as efficiently as would be possible. For example, the child who has learned to use the table of contents, the index, and the glossary in the reading class needs to be taught that these skills are *usable* in certain work-study activities in the social studies. A directed lesson in applying these skills in the social studies is necessary for many children.

Balance in the types of skills selected by the teacher is important in the development of an effective program. In order to achieve balance in the selection of skills, the teacher needs a classification system. One such classification system groups social studies skills according to *work-study skills* such as reading, outlining, map reading, and interpreting graphs; *thinking skills* such as critical thinking and problem solving; *group-process skills* such as those involved in leading or participating in other ways in group undertakings; and *social-living skills* such as acting responsibly, cooperating with others, and living and working in a group setting.[1]

It is not unusual to find that the work-study skills are emphasized to the virtual exclusion of the remaining three groups of skills. In the intermediate grades, group-process skills and social-living skills are taught only on an infrequent basis. The newer programs are stressing thinking skills; however, much needs to be done in order to give the group-process and social-living skills their proper place in the social studies program. On the primary level, the group-process and the social-living skills are begun by conscientious teachers only to find that an over emphasis on content in the intermediate grades relegates these skills involving the actual processes of human relationships to a less important status. In the final analysis, the teacher who believes in the importance of helping children acquire competencies necessary for effective social living will see that a balance exists between these skills and those involved in acquiring and interpreting information.

---

[1] *See* John Jarolimek. "The Psychology of Skill Development in Social Studies," in Helen McCracken Carpenter, editor. *Skill Development in Social Studies.* Thirty-Third Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1963. p. 18.

A sound program for the development of social studies skills provides for continuity. Although there is no definitive research to guide the exact grade placement of specific skills, teachers need guidance as to the types of skills appropriate for pupils on at least three levels of emphasis in the primary and intermediate grades. The first level of emphasis provides for the introduction of a given skill, the second provides for the systematic practice of the skill through repeated applications, and the third provides for the maintenance and the extension of the skill. This approach suggests that it is not sound practice to identify specific skills peculiar to a single grade for any one of the three levels of emphasis. Rather, it is better for the teacher to be aware of the various sub-skills in the work-study, thinking, group-process, and social-living categories and to apply whichever level of emphasis is appropriate for the child's needs and to the topic of study. Skills should be introduced, developed, and extended when the maximum potential for learning exists. This means that for certain children a skill in the work-study category may be introduced appropriately at the first grade level. For another group of children, the same skill may be appropriate at the second grade level. It is important, however, that once the skill is introduced that it be maintained and extended from that time on. The third grade teacher may find that the same skill must be emphasized on all three levels of instruction in order to meet the diverse abilities of all of the children in the group.

A curriculum that provides for continuity in skill development not only classifies social studies skills according to major groupings, it also provides for the identification of the sub-skills in each major category. These sub-skills are then arranged sequentially in accordance with the three levels of emphasis discussed here. An excellent guide for the analysis and grade placement of social studies skills has been prepared in chart form for teachers by Johns and Fraser.[2]

Teachers need a curriculum guide that is explicit as to the objectives for skill development as well as useful in its provision of suggested teaching strategies. A curriculum guide that merely lists skills appropriate for the study theme fails to provide the teacher with a model for making the objectives operational. It is not reasonable to expect that the development of social studies skills should consume the bulk of the teacher's time and effort—there are other legitimate teaching tasks that require his attention. A useful curriculum guide, therefore, will identify those skills that are basic to the effective utilization of the learning activities suggested in it. In addition, the guide should provide suggestions from which the teacher can formulate a teaching strategy designed to implement the skill on one or more of the three levels of emphasis, i.e. (1) introduction, (2) systematic practice, (3) maintenance and extension.

In many curriculum guides there is a merging of learning activities and skills. It seems to be common practice in the typical curriculum guide to lump together these two aspects of teaching and learning. Usually skills and learning activities are combined in the curriculum guide under a heading frequently designated as "learning activities." This practice encourages opportunistic as opposed to systematic approaches to the teaching of skills. Its results are well known. In the first place, it encourages the indiscriminate use of learning activities that depend on the pupil's mastery of skills basic to the effective prosecution of the learning activities. Granted that a learning activity such as "map study" is built entirely on the pupil's general ability to study maps. Reference only to map study, however, does not identify the sub-skills that are necessary for the success of that learning activity. The same applies to a learning activity labeled "establish a committee to locate study materials." Again, numerous skills are involved, some of which are a definite responsibility of the social studies while others are not. Moreover, the relationship between the specific activity and the skill it is supposed to enhance may not be clear either to the teacher or to the pupils. More attention needs to be given to the relationship of social studies skills and learning activities by authors of curriculum guides. In order for the objectives in skill development to become operational, a methodical plan of re-enforcement is needed. This can be accomplished by the inclusion of selected skills *throughout* the guide that are stated as expectancies for pupil growth.

Whenever a skill is identified, it should appear strategically at the place where various learning activities are appropriate both to the utilization of the skill and to the development of the main idea or concept to be learned. For example, on the primary level the ideas to be learned may be embodied in the statement, "Each member of the family does important work." During the study of this idea, certain skills are included as pupil expectancies in skill usage. The expectancy that the child should grow in the ability to share with others is a skill that is developed by giving the child an opportunity to explain to the group the type of work his father does. Another learning activity appropriate to the development of a second type of skill involves the child's ability to plan and to evaluate his learning experiences. This expectancy materializes as the child helps to plan a dramatic play activity based on the experiences of family life. What shall we play? How many will we need? How shall we play? What shall the rest of the group do? The child then participates in the evaluation of the learning activity. What did we do? How could it be improved? Finally, a third expectancy, that the child needs to grow in his ability to control bodily movement, becomes operational through learning activities in which he uses paint brushes and scissors in making figures of members of his family. The child may also participate in rhythms representing home activities such as working, ironing, baking, and sweeping. These activities are suggested within a meaningful context, not restricted simply to the idea to be learned, but requiring the application of skills basic to the learning activities.

---

[2] See Eunice Johns and Dorothy McClure Fraser. "Social Studies Skills: A Guide to Analysis and Grade Placement," in Helen McCracken Carpenter, editor. *Skill Development in Social Studies*. Thirty-Third Yearbook. Washington, D.C., National Council for the Social Studies, 1963. pp. 310-327.

Continuity in skill development can be illustrated in an example from the intermediate grades. The idea to be learned is summarized in the statement "pioneers moved west to improve their living conditions." Pupil expectancies in skill growth involve in the first instance the correct use of work-study skills. The learning activities include writing a story describing the depression of the late 1830's, making a population map of the United States in 1840, and writing a poem on pioneer love of open spaces. A committee is designated for each learning activity. These learning activities require the pupil to apply work-study skills involving the use of the book index and the table of contents to find information on the depression of the late 1830's in order to write the story and the poem. Making the population map, in addition to the mastery of map skills, requires the pupil to use study aids such as the glossary, pictures, charts, tables, and graphs. In each learning activity the skill of notetaking is basic. The study of the idea involves the group-process skills necessitated by working on a committee in which the pupil must help the group plan, knows what his specific job is, does the job within the time limit set, and respects the rights of others. Finally, the expectancy that the child continue his development of skills in motor coordination is made operational in a learning activity in which the child participates in folk dances similar to those done by pioneers. These examples from the primary and intermediate grade levels illustrate the possibilities to make skill development operational in the on-going study of the main ideas comprising the theme or unit topic. The strategic location of statements relative to skill teaching in the organization of a curriculum guide can do much to alert the social studies teacher to the importance of skills. A systematic provision for skill development helps to minimize the possibility that learning activities and skills will become merged to the point where skills lose their identity and thus are neglected altogether.

An effective program in the development of social studies skills provides for an ongoing evaluation system. If measurement of learning outcomes in the social studies is restricted to the determination of the amount of content that the pupil has acquired, then there is only an indirect feedback with respect to the pupil's degree of mastery in the four categories of skills. In order to have immediate feedback for teachers and pupils, the curriculum guide should provide suggestions for the evaluation of skill mastery within the context in which the skills are used. In the example of skills teaching provided earlier, the primary teacher should use several evaluation techniques in order to assess the degree of skills mastery demonstrated by the pupils. Observation in this situation would permit the teacher to determine how each child participates in group planning, contributes to the group and uses the various learning tools. The example that illustrated the application of social studies skills on the intermediate grade level contained numerous possibilities for the evaluation of skill proficiency. In this instance, teacher observation and the use of a check-list designed to evaluate pupil progress in work-study skills would be appropriate.

In the final analysis, a good program in skill development does not just happen. It is carefully planned and taught in a developmental, sequential, and systematic fashion. The time and energy necessary to develop an effective program will pay handsome dividends in providing pupils with the tools necessary for effective citizenship.

ROLE OF SKILLS

(Continued from page 221)

The emphasis, then, that will be dominant depends on the *nature* and *amount* of direction provided by the teacher. The need for guidance of learning, be it inductive or deductive, must, of course, be recognized. With children who are younger, less able, or inexperienced in inquiry procedures, the greater becomes the need for direction. Opportunities for structuring exist in the depth of the problems to be researched, the questions posed for discussion, the working definition used for an hypothesis, and the number of obvious cues contained in study materials provided. As pupil competency develops, the teacher can widen the horizons and plant fewer and fewer cues in the learning experience.

Gagné discusses the nature of direction as one of the conditions of problem-solving along with contiguity of the elements involved and recency of recall. He observes—

> Guidance may vary in amount or completeness, always short of describing the solution itself. At a minimum, guidance of thinking takes the form of informing the learner of the goal of his activity, the general form of the solution; this amount appears to be required if learning is to occur at all. Greater amounts of guidance function to limit the range of hypotheses to be entertained by the learner in achieving solution . . . When these conditions are present, the learner is able to solve the problem, although the time required for this solution is likely to vary with the amount of guidance provided, as well as with certain innate capacities of the learner.[8]

The prime requisite for the teacher is the ability to distinguish between goals of various kinds and to identify the learning procedures appropriate for different ends. Important also is willingness to let pupils venture on their own, to elicit suggestions for new ways of proceeding to encourage differing opinions, and to respect pupil fumblings along the way.

Another implication concerns the relative importance of various classifications of skills. The prominence currently given to the inquiry method, with focus on cognitive skills, may seem in effect to dwarf the importance of other kinds of skills. Actually, the opposite is true because effective thinking is facilitated by competency in a variety of abilities somewhat less complicated in nature. The quest for information cannot proceed far without the ability to determine and find the kind of resource that will supply the data needed and know-how to extract the information efficiently. Similarly, the organizing skills of notetaking, outlining, and reporting are steps along the way. In addition to such work-study skills as these, proficiency with the intake skills of observing, listening, and reading is basic to effective living today. The competencies to which social studies make a particular contribution—developing a sense of place and space, and a sense of time and chronology—provide perspective for decision-making. And the need for effective group-work skills, in school and in life, is apparent. In fact, at the primary level, this category of skills may well be not only basic to but also as important as the cognitive abilities.

Nothing in the current examination of learning in relation to thought processes contradicts either the principle of sequential development of skills (although stages cannot be expected to proceed neatly) or the concept of readiness (although time is subject to re-interpretation).

The need, then, is for thoughtful design and management of the learning environment to maintain balance both horizontally and vertically among the various kinds of skills needed for effective living today—and tomorrow.

---

lotte Crabtree. "Inquiry Approaches: How New and How Valuable?" *Social Education* 30: 523-525, 531; November 1966; J. Richard Suchman. "The Child and the Inquiry Process" in *Intellectual Development: Another Look*, edited by A. Harry Passow and Robert R. Leeper. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1964. pp. 59-77; Robert M. Gagné. *The Conditions of Learning*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965. Ch. 6.

[8] (Gagné, *Conditions of Learning*), p. 163.

SKILLS IN THE MIDDLE GRADES

(Continued from page 226)

nizing and using special map/globe symbols expands both a knowledge of map usage as well as the means of gaining information from maps.

Developing social study skills, then, must be a conscious, perhaps detailed, and certainly a specific effort. Most middle grade pupils will not "master" the skills, but they should extend those introduced earlier, maintain those already possessed at a functional level, and begin to develop some not appropriate for younger children. Perhaps more class time will be needed than is ordinarily devoted to skill development. Undoubtedly more rather than fewer opportunities for pupil work will be required. Decisions to "get through" less bulk with fewer conclusions will have to be made in favor of more thorough attention to the processes of study. Honest plans to develop skills will have a fruitful yield, because well-developed skills are prerequisite to social and civic literacy.

SKILLS IN THE PRIMARY GRADES

(Continued from page 223)

years. Conventional reading programs ordinarily devote some instruction to work-study skills that are relevant to social studies.

It often happens that a specific activity can be used to attack several related work-study skills. For example, a third grade class may be collecting pictures that show the way of life in another country. Such an activity might be used to promote any or all of the following skills:

1. Locating appropriate pictures.
2. Explaining or telling the class something about the picture.
3. Classifying information—placing pictures in appropriate categories such as those that show home life, those that show work people do, holiday observances, or sports events.
4. Comparing information from one picture with another.
5. Learning and using new words and concepts represented in the picture.
6. Asking appropriate questions concerning picture content.
7. Planning and arranging an exhibit, such as a bulletin board.
8. Creating and writing appropriate captions and/or explanations to accompany the pictures.

Similarly, in the selection of activities for the development of work-study skills, the primary grade teacher can attend to intellectual skills and social relationship skills as well. For example, in teaching pupils how to use the school library, the teacher will undoubtedly stress such intellectual skills as listening to directions, observing carefully, asking questions, and knowing what information is wanted. If the activity involves going to the library as a class or in smaller groups, she will also use the experience as a way of teaching or reinforcing social behavior of pupils. Finally, in the process pupils will learn something about use of the library—how it is arranged, where to look for certain kinds of books, and how to check out a book. Although we separate these skills for discussion purposes and focus instruction on specific skills from time to time to ensure learning, the whole cluster of social studies skills is highly interrelated.

To a degree skill growth is related to the developmental pattern of children. Consequently, no matter how intensively skills are taught in the primary grades, there are definite upper limits on the level of proficiency that can realistically be expected of most primary grade pupils. It is advisable, therefore, to establish reasonable criterion levels of expectation and settle for those rather than to expend an excessive amount of instructional time in order to get small increments of improvement in performance. The growth curve on skills rises sharply to a point and then levels off; perhaps the optimum performance expectancy is just beyond the point where the curve begins to plateau. If adequate instruction on skills can be assured and reasonable expectancy levels set, there will be time to spend on other important dimensions of an effective primary grade program. Skills and skills teaching, while extremely important, should not entirely dominate the primary grade curriculum to the exclusion of art, music, poetry, literature, and other learnings vital to the total development of the young child.

USING LEARNING RESOURCES

(Continued from page 229)

pointed toward success and the experience can lead to greater maturity when the pupil is the evaluator and the teacher an empathetic, constructive guide.

Modern learning resources can help skill development in the social studies in many more ways than enumerated here. These examples merely indicate the special roles they might play. Having recognized their usefulness, a reminder seems in order. The teacher using learning resources must remember that the pupil generally experiences learning as a total human being. He makes an indivisible approach to any learning task.

Many learning resources, on the other hand, are mono-sensory—visual or auditory or tactile. The pupil is not. The motion picture and television, at least, deliver bi-sensory experiences. Display boards can be multi-sensory—visual, tactile, and even auditory—though all too often they are not designed by teachers to make full use of these possibilities.

Therefore, it behooves the teacher to plan carefully when using such learning resources. He must allow for broadening experiences through a wide variety of resources. He must plan for integration of these experiences into the total pattern of the pupil's development. And finally, he must allow the pupil to develop independence in using these media and materials. Then, modern learning resources will contribute greatly to the learning of social studies skills.

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION: THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

focus on individualizing instruction

JOHN JAROLIMEK, *Editor*

BOARD OF ADVISORS

CHARLOTTE CRABTREE
Assistant Professor of Education
University of California
Los Angeles, California

ELEANOR GRAHAM
Consultant in Social Science
Metropolitan Public Schools
Nashville, Tennessee

ADELINE HOWLAND
Director of Elementary Education
Mount Vernon Public Schools
Mount Vernon, New York

MARY LEWIS
Elementary Social Studies Supervisor
Cincinnati Public Schools
Cincinnati, Ohio

JEAN MATHESON
Director of Elementary Education
Sarasota Public Schools
Sarasota, Florida

JOHN D. MCAULAY
Professor of Elementary Education
Pennsylvania State University
University Park, Pennsylvania

JOHN U. MICHAELIS
Professor of Education
University of California
Berkeley, California

VINCENT R. ROGERS
Professor of Elementary Education
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

FRANK TEMPEST
Elementary Social Studies Teacher
Division of Instructional Services
Denver Public Schools
Denver, Colorado

GILBERT M. WILSON
Chairman, Department of
Elementary Education
Boston University
Boston, Massachusetts

The Individual and the Social Studies

by VINCENT R. ROGERS

Professor of Elementary Education
University of Minnesota

ONE of the most provocative books to burst on the American educational scene in recent times is John Holt's controversial *How Children Fail*. Among other things, Holt warns us that:

> We cannot have real learning in school if we think it is our duty and our right to tell children what they must learn. We cannot know, at any moment, what particular bits of knowledge or understanding a child needs most, will most strengthen and best fit his model of reality. Only he can do this. He may not do it very well, but he can do it a hundred times better than we can. The most we can do is to try to help, by letting him know roughly what is available and where he can look for it. Choosing what he wants to learn and what he does not is something he must do for himself.[1]

This point of view must be exceedingly disturbing to those of us working in what might be called "the mainstream" of current curriculum reform movements in the social studies. It hits hard at a number of prevalent, obviously cherished notions about curricular organization that have gained an almost unquestioned acceptance among social studies "revisionists" from Cambridge to San Francisco.

Holt is telling us, essentially, that each child is *different*—that each is a unique and miraculous pattern of interests, attitudes, motives, values, and perceptions. This, of course, is not a strikingly new educational insight. To paraphrase Churchill, never in the field of human behavior has so much been written by so many about a single idea—and perhaps, utilized by so few. To some observers, it seems as if we are engaged in a massive effort to fit children to a host of preconceived,

---

[1] John Holt. *How Children Fail*. New York: Pitman Publishing Corp., 1964. p. 179.

"logical" curricular patterns that smack of teacher manipulation and over-planning. Indeed, it has been said that one of the great educational ironies of our time—particularly in social studies—is that, while we know more than we ever have about the individual child and what makes him tick, we tend to *teach* more and more uniformly.

Those who had anticipated that the thirty or so curriculum development projects that broadly comprise "project social studies" would begin to supply some positive answers to the individualization problem have been, for the most part, disappointed. While the projects have given a tremendous stimulus to all of us—particularly in our attempts to take a detailed and careful look at *where* we were going and *why*—they have not, as a rule, addressed themselves to the thorny problem of individualizing instruction.

The disappointment and implied criticism expressed by some educators at the lack of individualized approaches to learning among many of our major curriculum reform projects may, however, be somewhat unfair. That is, those individuals responsible for the planning and development of *national* projects recognized early in the game that no curriculum designed in Minneapolis, or Cambridge, or Evanston, or Syracuse could possibly fit the specific educational needs of American communities as diverse, say, as Rochester, New York and New Underwood, South Dakota—to say nothing of meeting the educational needs of individual children *within* such communities. The most one might hope to do is create broad guidelines and illustrative teaching material that would stimulate educators everywhere to re-evaluate what they were doing—to at least *consider* that they might be "wrong"—and to adopt or adapt those portions of nationally planned programs that seemed appropriate, counting (as we always have) on the classroom teacher to "adjust" for individual differences.

In any event, if one conceives of the purposes of the vast majority of national projects in these terms, it seems fair to say that they are, in fact, fulfilling their function.

Whether or not one accepts this conception of the fundamental purposes of current curricular reform efforts, however, the teacher is still faced with the fact that his group of children *are* often perplexingly different. They come to him, for example, with vastly differing maturity levels. Their abilities to work on their own without constant teacher direction vary, as do their abilities to initiate and sustain academic effort. Similarly, many are barely able to deal with abstractions of any kind, while others delight in manipulating ideas.

Children differ also in the ways in which they use what they have "learned"; the ways in which they reorganize ideas and apply them in new situations. Consider, for example, Herbert Thelen's description of a group of eighth graders engaged in a study of "revolutions":

> . . . they concentrated for three weeks upon revolutions. They studied three or four revolutions and then it became time to test their knowledge. I said, 'Why don't we try to find out something about what revolutions mean to these youngsters?' We tore pictures of the Russian Revolution out of *Life* magazine and said: 'All right, you've been studying revolutions. Here's a snapshot of a revolution.' We then gave them instructions: 'What do you think happened before, what's going on now, and how's it going to turn out? Make up a story.'
>
> One girl wrote: 'This picture shows the poor, downtrodden, unhappy peasants. The mothers are worried because they don't know how they're going to feed the little ones, the fathers have been taxed to death by the dictator and are in jail, the brothers are hiding in the hills to avoid military service, it's pretty bad.' 'How's it going to come out?' 'No good.' A 14-year-old boy, who was a problem youngster, produced the following: 'There are four basic causes of revolution: economic, political, social and religious.' A third boy wrote: 'This picture shows the common herd milling around the base of the palace of the king. The king is a wonderful man. Gentle, kind, educated, friendly, and he really wants to do well by his people but he gets bad advice from his government.'[6]

These children reacted essentially in terms of their *own* needs—in one case, the need perhaps for personal identification with "the downtrodden"; in another, an almost complete divorcement from *any* human involvement.

Similarly, Frank Estvan's stimulating investigations of the "social perceptions" of elementary school children indicate that there is considerable variation in what one "sees" or responds to in pictures, say, of a rural farming scene, pictures depicting poverty, and so forth. Such perceptual differences appear to be related to factors such as age, sex, intelligence, and experiential background.[7]

Children differ in other ways as well. For example, there is a growing body of research relating to the development of feelings of sensitivity and concern in children. These studies lead to the inescapable conclusion that children vary tremendously in the *degree* to which they express such feelings, the *ways* in which such feelings may be developed, and the *rates* at which they develop.

Jerome Kagan's studies of personality and learning[8] have particular relevance for those who see the inductive or inquiry approach as a basic method of instruction for *all* elementary school children. Kagan's research indicates that some children will attack a given problem in a deliberate, reflective way, allowing time enough for the development and mental testing of, perhaps, a series of hypotheses. Other children react far more impulsively and attack with the first hypothesis that occurs to them. Further, Kagan argues that it takes considerable conscious effort for a child to *delay* reacting—to mull over a problem—to make inferences. For many children, Kagan concludes, the necessity of even a few minutes involvement with no apparent reward is simply not worth the effort, and they are likely to intellectually "withdraw" from the task. Kagan raises serious questions about the degree to which primary grade children are able to understand the very nature of a "problem"—an understanding that would appear to be crucial for a curriculum built around "inquiry" methods. This should not imply, of course, that an instructional program might not attempt to *develop* such abilities and understanding in children; however, the implications of such questions for those advocating—or suggesting by default—"uniform" methods and materials should be obvious.

---

[6] W. B. Waetjen, editor. *Human Variability and Learning.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1961. pp. 41-46.

[7] F. J. and E. W. Estvan. *The Child's World: His Social Perception.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959.

[8] Jerome Kagan. "Personality and the Learning Process." *Daedalus*, Summer, 1965, pp. 553-563.

Still other differences appear among the children we teach; differences that are exceedingly relevant to the teacher whose educational goals and objectives are not narrowly academic. Consider, for example, this passage from Claude Brown's revealing analysis of his Harlem childhood, *Manchild in the Promised Land*:

> I remember when [my brother] was thirteen or fourteen. He was in the eighth grade. He came home one day and said, 'Mama, I think I'm gonna become an *Air Force* pilot and fly a jet plane.' It seemed a normal thing that any little boy might say to his mother and get some kind of encouragement, but that didn't happen in [his] case.
>
> Mama told him, 'Boy, don't you go wantin' things that ain't for you. You just go out there and get you a good job.' A good job to Mama was a job making fifty or sixty dollars a week, and that was as much as anybody should have wanted, in Mama's opinion. Sixty dollars was damn good money. That was enough to retire off, the way they used to talk about it.[*]

Thousands of children in rural and urban "disadvantaged" areas have had their levels of aspiration—their confidence in and respect for what they are and what they might become—shaken and sometimes destroyed during the impressionable years preceding and including attendance at an elementary school. Studies of such children indicate that, in general, we may find these sorts of differences in both learning "style" and attitude:

1. Culturally disadvantaged children find it considerably more difficult to deal with "distractions" of various kinds in classroom learning situations than do middle-class children. Screening out the irrelevant and concentrating on the "academic business of the day" is exceedingly difficult for many of these children. The lower-class child, often living in noisy, crowded households, is, in a sense, trained *not* to listen.

2. Similarly, a whole host of language barriers that we have come to associate with lower-class living make for the existence of a group of learners who find it increasingly difficult to compete with their middle-class counterparts in academic or "school" situations.

3. Such differences often lead to other difficulties that interfere with a child's chances for success in school; particularly in what might be called the "informational" subjects such as science and social studies. Differences appear, for example, in what might be called "memory training"; in one's ability to make judgements involving time; in one's level of conceptualization in general.

4. Motivational differences appear as well, as do differences in children's willingness to ask questions, to be "consciously curious"—to ask, "why?"

In all of these ways and dozens more, the children we teach are, for better or for worse, uniquely themselves. This, of course, creates agonizing problems for sensitive teachers. At the same time, however, our recognition of such differences and, hopefully, our willingness to build social studies programs geared to the developing of existing strengths as well as to the overcoming of academic and other weaknesses in each child, provides us with an opportunity to participate far more effectively in the educative process.

What, then, does all of this mean to the classroom teacher and to those responsible for curriculum development in the social studies? Does the existence of such differences call for more "special" classes? For "track" systems? For computerized "programs" for each child? Or perhaps, must we return to the laissez faire, unstructured approaches advocated by John Holt and others? Is the notion of some sort of "common curriculum" based on a series of fundamental concepts or generalizations to which *all* the children in a given school system will be exposed really a viable approach?

Hopefully, the articles that follow this one will provide at least some specific answers. I would like to conclude this introductory statement, however, with a series of propositions that may offer some guidelines for our attacks on the individualization question.

1. It seems to me that it is absolutely essential that we teach the individual *within a framework of societal and cultural significance*—and that we do so without violating what we know about the great variety and complexity of the differences that exist among children. *What* we study does make a difference; while the words "societal and cultural significance" are open to *broad* interpretation,

(Continued on page 479)

---

[*] Claude Brown, *Manchild in the Promised Land*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1965, p. 180.

Individualizing Instruction in the Primary Grades

by LORRAINE D. PETERSON

Elementary Social Studies Supervisor, K-6
Los Angeles City Schools

ONE of the healthiest changes in the educational climate of the schools has been the move away from uniformity in and conformity to the same goals for all children and the increased emphasis on the search for new opportunities for the individual's growth toward his potential. It is no new idea that children differ widely in their physical, intellectual, and emotional patterns; neither would it be original to suggest some organizational patterns planned to meet the challenges of the gifted, the slower-learning pupil, the physically handicapped, or the pupil needing social adjustment.

Sufficient evidence also exists to demonstrate the advisability of reducing the range of ability levels within classrooms to allow, where possible, groupings of children with similar abilities. Even further attempts have been made over the years to lessen the range of individual differences through nongraded or ungraded classrooms, semi-departmentalized elementary programs that cluster similar interests or abilities in activity clubs or classroom units for certain subjects, or the divided-day reading program for primary classes that permitted teachers to meet with half the class before and the other half after the entire group joined for the day's activities. Team teaching, tutorial programs, partnership reading, and other innovations represent efforts to cope with the different learning needs of pupils in the primary grades.

Classroom equipment and materials have been developed to provide some measure of help in individualizing instruction. Programed texts, though limited in content and scope, help to develop individual rates of learning. Science kits, reading kits, map reading kits, prepared commercially or by local school districts, can be used successfully with either small groups or individuals. Increased availability of material for listening and viewing centers has brought an upsurge in the purchase of tape recorders, phonographs, filmstrip projectors, and automated devices for using cartridge loops, single-concept films, and sound-accompanied filmstrips. The visitor to the primary classroom is no longer astounded to see headset-adorned children seemingly attached by wires to machines, deeply absorbed in projects to extend, expand, and enrich their backgrounds.

Yet, the answer to individualizing instruction is only partially found in machines, devices, materials, cluster groupings, and innovative organizational patterns. Rich environments of library books, blocks and accessory materials, tool carts and construction materials, and art and music centers are merely the setting for the skillful and creative teacher. The essential and critical variable in success of individualizing instruction is the teacher.[1] Particularly in the primary grades, the teacher is challenged to adapt the rate of learning and the depth of experience to the individual within a broad framework of planned goals and objectives. Few school districts are committed to an unstructured primary program. Most provide guidelines for content, for the development of skills, attitudes, and understandings, for suggested activities, and for resource materials needed. It is within this framework that the sensitive teacher attempts to assess the strengths and weaknesses of each member of the class and to build for each a program that will move him toward his optimum functioning level.

Children entering the beginning primary grades have had little exposure to structured programs. They bring with them their creative imagination, an intense curiosity, and an interest in experimenting, manipulating, exploring, discovering, and observing. Some children have been carefully nurtured, read to, taken to cultural centers and have traveled widely. Others have been enclosed in a tight web of neglect and poverty, bringing with them their lack of background, their lack of experiences, and their incipient failures.

The schools accept all these children; then seek ways to foster creativity and stimulate self-direction through a variety of approaches and tactics such as the following:

> . . . An accepting and approachable manner on the part of the teacher permits children to express themselves freely and is evidenced by their willingness to participate, their eager enthusiasm, and their cooperative responses.[2]
>
> . . . A careful analysis of specific needs, interests, talents, abilities, and background of experiences will be formed

---

[1] Bernice J. Wolfson. "Individualizing Instruction." *National Education Association Journal* 55:31-33; November 1966.

[2] Lois N. Nelson. "Maximizing Creativity in the Classroom." *Young Children* XXI: 131-135; January 1966.

> on a tentative basis and will be subject to constant re-evaluations throughout the year. The continuous shifting provides opportunities for heterogeneous or homogeneous groupings whereby more competent youngsters may act as partners to reinforce learnings of other children; highly motivated children may stimulate and extend interest of others in new projects; and children with special needs may have small-group attention.
>
> . . . There need to be opportunities to solve various types of problems that are purposeful and meaningful and for which children know the purpose and the significance. The teacher's questions must be probing and thought-provoking and should lead to more problem-solving activities. Very young children tend to be satisfied with a partial answer, for it provides a solution to an immediate problem. Continued questioning as to "Why do you think . . . ?" or "How could we find out?" or "What might happen if . . . ?" stimulates active pupil participation by many other children not previously involved directly in the project. Pupils begin to learn to think for themselves, to seek ways to find answers, to test their answers, and to change their opinions as new information is discovered.
>
> . . . Many work centers for varied activities need to be provided to encourage individual selection and direction. These centers of interest may be organized for independent work for a single child, for partners, or for a small group. Within the limitations of their value to the total program, the centers need to expand as new understanding is reached, to provide a tangential approach when interests flag, or to be discarded when children have reached closure.
>
> . . . Finally, on-the-spot evaluations of problems noted by the teacher in moving about the room from activity to activity are needed as well as group discussions in the evaluation period as the children are drawn to analyze new directions and to offer additional suggestions.

Having outlined some of the generally accepted procedures, it would be pertinent to see how these principles can be put into operation by a zealous and creative teacher. On a visit to a kindergarten-first grade combination classroom at the end of a semester,[3] it was possible to watch purposeful activity through the planning or "purposing" minutes, the "building" of the interrelated community, the role-playing and interaction of members of the "community," and the evaluation and determination of added direction during the evaluation period.

Although many objectives are listed for block work,[4] among the most important are clarification of the child's ideas and the opportunities he has for oral expression. As tangible and manipulative materials, floor blocks of varying sizes and shapes take on meaning as symbols for parts of buildings, access roads, and airplane approaches. Anyone who has watched young children work with floor blocks and accessory materials has seen evidence of children's ability to assume responsibility, to think more critically and analytically about problems, and to work more cooperatively with others as time progresses. Mrs. Morrison's five- and six-year-olds demonstrated rather sophisticated and complex understandings of the interrelationships of the community.

A typical work period produced a harbor community, an airport, a post office, an oil field, a lumber camp, a farm, and a wholesale market. A specialized area of the room suggested that a farm raising cotton produced sufficient quantities for both home consumption and for export; while another label indicated that a banana plantation in South America could be a source of imports.

Although the total working community was in itself indicative of the growth of important concepts, and as a community offered opportunities for interaction between children performing the tasks of providing goods and services, it served also to launch other centers of interest to extend ideas and to solve new problems.

An important adjunct to the preparation of work centers is the teacher's daily notes indicating the reasons for setting up the work centers, the child or children for whom it was initially intended, what progress, has been made, what extensions have been necessary, what modifications have been made, and what must still be accomplished. Careful records make it possible for the teacher to comment in a manner as to invoke newly aroused enthusiasm for continuing a project. Such a comment might be "Yesterday, Jay, you were having trouble with . . . ; What do you think you might do today to . . . ? Can anyone else offer a suggestion?"

Each of the work centers had a relationship to the total class project and was modified to meet individual needs. Below are some of the purposes and activities and the application of learnings that were apparent in the work centers.

WORK CENTER 1 Study of harbor formation.

Purposes and Activities: Some children were dissatisfied with the harbor design and were developing map understandings through—

a. Studying harbor formation using teacher-made maps of brown and blue construction paper for land and water areas.
b. Using a magnifier to enlarge aerial photography and pictures of harbors.
c. Discussing contour of land, purposes of harbors, and possible changes in the classroom harbor.
d. Using filmstrips at viewing center to compare man-made and natural harbors.

---

[3] Visit to kindergarten-first grade classroom taught by Mrs. June Morrison at Roscomare Elementary School, Los Angeles, California.

[4] Dorothy H. White and Ina M. Metcalfe. *Education the Child's Way*. Los Angeles: Tommy Manwell Publications, 1954. p. 9.

Application of Learnings:

- a. Planning block harbor to conform to specific land formations.
- b. Developing map understandings through relating the pictured land and seacoast formation to block work.

WORK CENTER 2 Interpreting map color key.

Purposes and Activities: Children developed the understanding that lumber was found in some regions of the United States and cotton was grown in other regions through—

- a. Discovering that colors on a wall map represented elevations.
- b. Relating color symbols to topography.
- c. Using a template to trace the total area of the United States and providing relief features through sand to indicate mountains, valleys, and level areas in preparation for more permanent relief maps made of other material.

Application of Learnings:

- a. Identifying land best suited for raising cotton or for growing lumber.
- b. Relating topography to routes for transporting materials.

WORK CENTER 3 Developing understandings of weather.

Purposes and Activities: Children observed different kinds of weather and applied their learnings to their airport through—

- a. Reading simple weather maps prepared by the teacher.
- b. Learning simple symbols representing weather conditions.
- c. Determining the best flight pattern to reach New York from Los Angeles, avoiding rain and snow areas indicated on a map, and showing flight with a string.

Application of Learnings:

- a. Alerting pilots at the airport through weatherman for safe flying pattern.
- b. Charting weather conditions for particular areas.

WORK CENTER 4 Problems of food storage.

Purposes and Activities: Children wanted to find out which foods spoiled quickly, which ones took longer, and which foods did not spoil, through—

- a. Organizing a display of fresh fruits, such as half a pear, half a lemon, and a peeled banana; sugar; salt; milk; other foods.
- b. Noting daily changes in foods through observing, smelling, and feeling.
- c. Recording changes.

Application of Learnings:

- a. Determining which kinds of food must be refrigerated or processed to prevent spoilage.
- b. Relating types of transportation to kinds of food to be imported or exported.

WORK CENTER 5 Use of policy and other simple machines.

Purposes and Activities: Children developed understandings of ways machines make work easier through—

- a. Experimenting with single pulley on stand to lift small item.
- b. Using inclined planes and fork lift to move cargo.

Application of Learnings:

- a. Using a pulley on the docks to lift cargo and understanding the use of the "boom."
- b. Learning that simple machines are used throughout a community to make work easier.

WORK CENTER 6 Producing cloth from cotton.

Purposes and Activities: Two children attempted to discover how raw materials can be made into finished products through—

- a. Using library center, carefully provided with books on cloth and clothing.
- b. Examining series of pictures to discover sequence in cloth production.
- c. Examining woven cloth under magnifying glass.
- d. Experimenting through pounding, pulling, and finally twisting.

Application of Learnings:

- a. Learning the sequence of steps from picking cotton to exporting as a raw material.
- b. Relating raw material to a finished product.
- c. Planning to experiment with wool.

Through the work at the interest centers and in the discussion period that followed, there was evidence that the complexity of the solution to the problems, the depth of insight obtained, and the value applicable to the situations varied with the self-direction of the children involved. Planning by the teacher through previous notes had made available a wealth of diversified materials for a variety of approaches to the problems. Children felt a responsibility for working toward predetermined goals and demonstrated the ability to appraise their work and to participate in planning additional steps. There was no fear of failure,[5] but, rather, an attitude of inquisitiveness and willingness to learn from previous mistakes. Arthur W. Combs states, "One of the nice things about self-direction is that it does not have to be taught. It only needs to be encouraged and set free to operate."[6]

There is no single teaching strategy that will produce self-directed, self-realizing, creative individuals. However, given the materials and tools, the atmosphere of enthusiasm and sensitivity created by the clever teacher, and the opportunities and motivation to work with growing independence, the young child in the primary grades today has a better chance to develop his fullest potential through instruction "tailor-made" for him.

---

[5] Arthur W. Combs. "Fostering Self-Direction." *Educational Leadership* 23:373-376; February 1966.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 376.

Providing for Individual Differences: Middle and Upper Grades

by W. LINWOOD CHASE

Professor Emeritus
Boston University

A TEACHER concerned with individual differences plans work-period activities and participation in total class experiences so that each pupil feels what he is doing is important and that success is possible. An individual pupil may perform in a whole-class activity, in small groups of varying size, or as an independent worker. Sometimes, during a single class period he may operate in all these categories.

Until the classroom teacher decides that planning for individual differences is imperative, nothing of great importance is going to happen in making provision for them. Uniform assignments and whole-class teaching do not provide for nor encourage individual differences. Small-group activities properly planned, differentiation in tasks with common instructional material, and special assignments do.

Guidelines for effective service to children suggest that the teacher must—

1. *Adapt instruction to various levels of ability.* To bring together the right materials and the right activities for the right children at the right time is a demanding task.

2. *Provide for different progress rates in learning.* Plans should be flexible enough to allow some pupils to learn faster than others; to allow others to proceed at a pace that will result in success at different levels.

3. *Teach to specific points of weakness.* This calls for direct teaching to the point of error or weakness only for those children who need the assistance.

4. *Encourage individual and group self-direction and initiative.* Each quest for knowledge should be stimulated by teacher-pupil planning. Grouping is flexible and is related to specific learning objectives.

5. *Enrich learning to make it significant and useful.* Use a variety of related activities and instructional aids. Make skills instruction closely related to meanings, definite applications, and specific evaluations. Stress organizational, elaborative, and critical thinking.[1]

Jarolimek suggests that there are five adjustments a teacher should make that will help provide for individual differences:

> These are (1) adjustments in reading, (2) adjustments in classroom activities in which the children may participate, (3) adjustments in qualitative and quantitative aspects of the child's work, (4) adjustments in the level of conceptualization expected of individual children including the formation of temporary subgroups in the class for this purpose, and (5) adjustments in the amount of supervision and guidance the teacher gives individual children.[2]

Even when we are concerned with individual needs and consequent provision for growth we do not neglect the rightful and desirable opportunities for whole-class activities. The sharing of common experiences in a noncompetitive situation adds important values to social living. Legitimate whole-class activities are those that involve introduction of a unit, demonstrations, field trips, exhibits and displays, films and filmstrips, listening to poetry and other readings, plays and dramatizations, choral reading, discussions in building group standards, current affairs, appreciation lessons, recordings, radio or television programs, group and specialty reports, concluding activities in units, class planning, and listening to explanations and directions.

Though listed as whole-class activities, many can be carried forward to greater advantage by using feedback from small groups to the total class. For example, preparatory to viewing a film or filmstrip, the questions set up by the teacher or by pupil contributions in whole-class discussion may be distributed to viewers according to ability; slow learners will be asked to name or list, average learners might have questions concerning the nature of a process or simple interpretation, more able learners will compare, contrast, analyze, synthesize, evaluate.[3]

---

[1] Adapted from Donald D. Durrell *et al.* "Adapting Instruction to the Learning Needs of Children in the Intermediate Grades." *Journal of Education* 142:1-78; December 1959.

[2] John Jarolimek. *Social Studies in Elementary Education,* Third Edition. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1967. p. 152. Chapter 5, "Individualizing Instruction in Social Studies," will help the teacher plan specific types of activities. pp. 141-171.

[3] Norris M. Sanders. *Classroom Questions: What Kinds?* New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1966. (Paperback)

One of the ways of introducing a unit is through small group discussion. One teacher introduced a unit on Great Britain by dividing a class of twenty-eight into seven groups. Following the appointment of a secretary in each, two of the groups used textbooks, three groups were given large globes, a pair in one group was sent to a political wall map and the other pair to a physical wall map, and the final group used atlases. Mutual aid within a group helped overcome any difficulties in understanding experienced by an individual. The secretary kept a record of the group's deliberations. Observation showed nearly every pupil participated in the group discussion.

There is little educational justification for a question-and-answer recitation where questions demand fact answers. Such classwork can be better done by using self-checking fact sheets, or by pairs of pupils checking each other. In either case, more pupils are participating than is the case in oral question-answer procedures.

In a unit on "Colonial Life" a teacher assigned nine pupils to the New England Colonies, nine to the Middle Colonies, and eight to the Southern Colonies. Each group of nine was divided into three groups with a team leader for each. The teacher met with the six team leaders to discuss how to use a research guide that she gave them. The eight pupils studying the Southern Colonies were the slow learners. Each day she met with this group, giving direct help in locating specific information about a topic, interpreting pictures to gain knowledge, relating map information to what was read, and then organizing information into a final report to the class. They were given prestige because they were the only group to present any information to the class on the Southern Colonies. The tasks they undertook were nearly always done in teams of two or three pupils. They supported each other in mutual aid. Such children need considerable help. It is often supplied by detailed work sheets and very specific directions for tasks of short duration, using various instructional aids.

Taped lessons provide many possibilities for individual pupil work. One teacher tape recorded the main headings of an outline and the directions for filling in the details. As the recording was played back, pupils completed the details of the outline as directed. Six children, sitting around a table with the books, plugged in earphones, listened, and performed.

At those times when a basal text or when common supplemental reading is used, many teachers have found study guides useful. These can and should be differentiated in difficulty to fit the instructional needs of major groups within a class. Some of the factors that may be varied in difficulty are:

1. The text to be studied.
    - –Vocabulary burden may be heavy or light.
    - –Sentences may be short and simple or long and complex.
    - –Content may be concrete or abstract.

2. The length of the passage to be read before responding.
    - –Questions may relate to a sentence, a paragraph, or a chapter.

3. The time of presentation of the questions.
    - –Questions prior to reading make study easier; the longer the delay between reading and questioning, the more difficult the task.

4. The form of questions set. These are in general order of difficulty:
    - –Multiple-choice or true-false questions.
    - –Short answer or completion questions.
    - –Multiple answer questions that require listing.
    - –Unaided summaries.

5. The intellectual task required by the questions. Although the difficulty may vary within types, an approximate order follows:
    - –Verbatim answers on facts.
    - –Interpretation required through variation of vocabulary.
    - –Organization by sentences or categories.
    - –Elaborative or inferential thinking.
    - –Critical thinking.

6. The nature of expression required.
    - –Selecting answers provided.
    - –Oral answers.
    - –Written answers.[4]

Because each of the factors above may be varied independently, a great variety of combinations is possible. A study guide for the very easiest task would combine simple material, response after each sentence, multiple-choice form of question, verbatim response only, and answers to be underlined. A difficult study guide would combine abstract materials with difficult vocabulary, response after long units of reading, tasks set after reading, an unaided summary required, and response to be written.

The Pupil Specialty[5] is a special assignment for the able learner that deals with some topic, person, place, event, product, or period of time. It is an oral-visual report because it requires displayed material but is much more comprehensive than the usual oral report. Specialties have high motivating value, they enrich the classroom program, and give the pupil a feeling of importance. A specialty allows the child to

(Continued on page 420)

---

[4] Adapted from unpublished material by Donald D. Durrell, Boston University.

[5] For details of development *see* W. Linwood Chase. *A Guide for the Elementary Social Studies Teacher.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1966. pp. 41-53.

Learning Resources for Individualizing Instruction

by HUBER M. WALSH

Associate Professor
The University of Toledo

THERE are several reasons why teachers equipped with proper learning resources can meet individual learning needs in a superior manner. First, instructional materials make it possible for the classroom teacher to "stretch" his time. When resources such as auto-instruction media are utilized to perform certain routine instructional tasks like drill, the teacher is freed for other tasks demanding more creative, human teaching. Second, children *do* have different learning patterns and these necessitate the use of various instructional vehicles to "reach" them successfully. Books and other printed materials are the most effective keys to understanding for some pupils, but individual learning patterns may make viewing a motion picture, hearing a tape recording, or working with self-directed programed materials more profitable for others. Most pupils will require all of these and perhaps others in combination. The point is, we have yet to discover a universal skeleton key in teaching children. No single best way to reach all pupils exists; hence, the need is created to find and to use the right material(s) tailored to the particular needs of particular individuals. Third, good instructional materials seem to have built-in child appeal—a kind of intrinsic glamour and fascination that tends to intrigue youngsters. At least in the beginning, they find most new media attractive and, consequently, are motivated to use them. This phenomenon tends to vitalize social studies instruction and make it more enjoyable. Fourth, certain of the learning resources now available are well suited to individualizing instruction in the fullest sense of the term. That is, these devices can provide instruction on a fully self-directed basis allowing the child to investigate and discover on his own when there is no teacher present to assist him. Innovations in technology have simplified equipment operation to such an extent that pupils can use machines easily. Such refinements have made it possible for children to use motion pictures and filmstrips at home evenings and week-ends as their own private tutors.

Reviewed below are several new resources that hold the promise of being quite useful in "reaching" children of varying abilities in social studies—the slow learner, the culturally-disadvantaged child, the non-verbal youngster, the retarded reader, the gifted learner, and others. An attempt has been made to focus on salient new developments that provide refreshing, innovative approaches to individualized instruction. Most of these are already available to the classroom teacher; others, however, are in the developmental stage and will become available later on.

8mm Cartridge Projector. Because of its compactness, lightness, and simplicity of operation, the 8mm cartridge projector is particularly valuable as a tool for individualizing instruction. It can be used easily by youngsters in the classroom or at home for independent study because the problem of threading film is eliminated. Film is housed entirely within a plastic case and formed into a continuous loop making rewinding unnecessary. Using the projector is as simple as inserting the cartridge, turning a switch, and making minor focus adjustments.

A variety of film loops germane to elementary social studies is available, with most designed to teach a single concept. The ordinary film runs for about four minutes, then repeats itself as many times as desired. This continuous presentation feature makes this a particularly valuable resource in meeting the needs of individuals requiring more than the usual amount of repetition for concept mastery. Such children, on their own, can view and review the film as many times as is necessary to fully grasp the idea. Inasmuch as present-day film loops are without sound tracks, the ideational presentation is exclusively visual, with very slight use being made of printed captions. Thus these films are advantageous for slow readers and pupils with restricted language backgrounds such as those coming from culturally-disadvantaged environments.[1]

The Multi-Media Kit. Multi-media kits are rather complete learning-resource packages containing a wide variety of audio and visual media, printed materials, artifacts, and other learning tools related to various social studies units. They will be particularly welcome in those classrooms where a wide diversity of individual learning needs exist. Each kit contains something beneficial to and usable by almost every child, whether he learns best visually, aurally, or tactually.

---

[1] For additional information, contact The Technicolor Corporation, 1985 Placentia Avenue, Costa Mesa, California 92627.

The use of kits simplifies the often vexing problem of instructional materials procurement, for it is far simpler for the teacher to procure one package containing an array of media than to have to order each item separately. Its most important contribution, however, is that is provides excellent resources for the individualization of instruction. In a multi-media kit on Mexico, for instance, one would have at hand the following resources: (a) information brochures on Mexico City (these appropriate for use by gifted children); (b) filmstrips with accompanying records (these could be used for research by average children); (c) photographs (slow readers could use these to advantage); (d) a collection of Mexican toys and other artifacts of the culture (non-readers and non-verbal children could make discoveries from studying these articles).

Multi-media kits to be used in cross-cultural studies are commercially available,[2] and, in addition, some school districts have begun to develop their own multi-media kits for social studies teachers.

Programed Materials. The ever-expanding array of programed materials for social studies instruction is an additional resource useful in meeting individual learning needs. Though many of these are intended for total-group use, perhaps their most significant contribution to learning is made when they are used to individualize instruction on a single-pupil basis. Programed materials become particularly valuable for reviewing, reteaching, and re-inforcing knowledge already presented by the classroom teacher. Used in this way programed materials do not supplant human teaching, but instead provide a way to meet special needs of a given learner without necessitating the expenditure of a disproportionate amount of the teacher's time.

One new set of programed materials provides instruction in map and globe skills. This kit, like the two described immediately below, uses very much the same color-coded, sequential approach as is used in the SRA Reading Laboratory Materials. The map program consists of materials to teach basic concepts, study-exercise materials, and self-checking devices.

A recently introduced organizing and reporting skills kit is a program designed to provide instruction in reporting, note-taking, and outlining. Its companion set of materials is a graph and picture skills program intended for the upper-elementary grades. Skills in interpretation and application of graphic materials such as photographs, editorial cartoons, diagrams, charts, and the like are included.[3]

A study skills library will answer the need of many pupils for individualized instruction in social studies reading skills—especially those needing remedial instruction. Comprised of seven different sets of materials, the library encompasses reading levels III through IX. Within each is a series of sequential lessons predicated on a self-directed reading exercise followed by a self-checking activity. Individual lessons are designed to teach such specific skills as interpretation, judging relevancy and significance, verifying accuracy, and finding and organizing ideas.[4]

Automatic Projection Center. A fascinating new idea that is destined to capture the imaginations of creative social studies teachers is the Automatic Projection Center. Capable of a myriad variety of multi-media presentations, the device consists of two sound motion picture projectors (16mm and 8mm), three slide projectors, and a stereophonic tape recorder.

The heart of the center is a punched paper tape that programs the presentations. Equipment is started, paused, stopped, and reversed on command of the tape. Slide projectors may be programed to operate individually, to project in 1-2-3 order across the screen to illustrate a step-by-step process; or all three may be used in concert to produce a cinemascope-like, wide-screen panoramic view. Inclusion of the 8mm projector makes it possible for teachers to augment commercial film presentations with their own inexpensively-made films. The flexibility of tape programing produces almost unlimited possibilities for individualizing instruction. Using the same projection materials, for example, one program can be prepared appropriate to the learning requirements of the gifted learner; another can be made for slow learners; and yet another can be developed for use by average pupils. Though the same instructional media are used in each case, such factors as order of presentation, and provisions for repetition and review are varied according to need differential. Although the APC is not yet commercially marketed, its components and plans for its construction are available.[5]

World Affairs Reports. Teachers searching for resources in current affairs for use with above-average pupils may find what they are looking for in a new series of materials entitled *World Affairs Reports.*

---

[2] For further information, contact International Communications Foundation, 870 Monterey Pass Road, Monterey Park, California.

[3] For additional information on these three programs, contact Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Illinois 60611.

[4] For additional information, contact Educational Development Laboratories, Huntington, New York.

[5] For additional information, contact Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, New York 14650.

Though created for use in secondary classrooms, these materials appear equally well suited to limited, specialized use in the elementary school. A typical set of materials consists of a 25-30 minute sound tape presentation containing on-the-spot recordings of news events as they happened (these made in cooperation with United Press-International); multiple copies of a programed textbook to complement the tape and teach additional information; and a guidebook for the teacher. Kits are to be issued on a monthly basis, and future topics will focus on "The Negro Crisis," "Russia vs. China," and "The Poor." These materials seem particularly well suited for individual use by elementary children as self-tutoring devices. In some cases, however, there may be advantage in using them with small groups of advanced pupils.[6]

Project Discovery. A new departure from customary materials utilization and a noteworthy venture in individualizing instruction is underway at Mercer School in Shaker Heights, Ohio. There pupils take home projectors and films for independent study with much the same ease and regularity that their elementary-school counterparts elsewhere take home their books. This began over three years ago when the school was designated as the pilot unit for Project Discovery—a cooperative effort by manufacturers, school districts, distributors, and universities to investigate the effects of saturating an individual school with audiovisual materials and equipment. An important aspect of the total concept is to facilitate pupil investigation and discovery by expanding the scope of research tools available to the child for independent use.

Each classroom is equipped with both an automatic motion picture projector and an automatic filmstrip projector. Pupils begin to learn to operate these in the second grade and by grade three all but a few can operate them with facility. Adjacent to the school's 12,000 volume library is the film center in which are housed over 1,000 filmstrips and upwards of 600 motion picture films. All materials are clearly labeled and easily accessible to the child user. The center is outfitted with several projectors and headsets making it possible for several pupils or small groups to study motion pictures simultaneously without disturbing one another. The center is available to children before, during, and after school.

An individual with a topic he wishes to investigate may consult a special card catalog to identify the projection materials germane to his research area. Once materials are located, the pupil may view them either in the film center or in his classroom. He may elect to check out the films and necessary projection equipment (with the assistance of parents) for overnight or over the week-end study at home.

Teachers and pupils are enthusiastic about this effort to reduce the usability gap by facilitating self-directed pupil utilization of audiovisuals. Moreover, teachers appreciate having at hand a basic collection of materials ready for immediate use rather than having to guess at future needs and having to order items months in advance of their use.

In addition to Shaker Heights, the project is currently in operation in other cities across the nation in a variety of socio-economic settings. Quite possibly this effort may herald the coming of learning resource centers to the elementary school. Such centers would represent an expansion of the conventional school library into a full-fledged instructional materials center providing a total spectrum of printed and non-printed resources immediately available to both pupils and teachers.[7]

Computerized Programing for Individualization. A future possibility more than a present-day actuality is the prospect of using automated data processing to aid teachers in individualizing social studies instruction. For example, given data on what a pupil learned yesterday, on his learning needs for tomorrow, and on his optimum learning pattern, data analysis could be used to identify the most promising learning activities and resources to be used with that particular child. For one, this might indicate an individualized session with some kind of electronic teaching device; for another it might mean a small-group work session with the classroom teacher, or perhaps the beginning of some kind of construction project. For others additional work in textbooks might be prescribed. One type of learning resource would be suggested for the gifted, another for the average, and a different one for the slow reader, and so on, accommodating each according to his special needs.

Study-Print Packages. A review of new learning resources for individualizing instruction would be incomplete without at least brief mention of the new packets of study prints becoming available. The typical set contains a coordinated collection of large, full-color photographs centered about a topic or theme such as "Life in the Heart of the City." Although they are good media to use with all pupils, they are especially appropriate to the needs of the slow learner, the retarded reader, and the non-verbal child. Slow learners, for instance, can use them for independent research, recording on tape the infor-

(Continued on page 423)

---

[6] For further information, contact Behavioral Research Laboratories, Ladera Professional Center, Box 577, Palo Alto, California 94302.

[7] For further information, contact Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 1150 Wilmette Avenue, Wilmette, Illinois 60091.

Curriculum Provisions for Individual Differences

by ROBERT GROESCHELL

Director of Elementary Education
State of Washington

EDUCATIONAL philosophies usually contain some statement that expresses concern for individual differences in children and a belief in the value of making allowances for such differences in curriculum and instruction. Instructional practices that effectively consider individual differences are customarily conducted within the framework of some such stated commitment. The classroom teacher is allowed and even expected to adapt the curriculum and instructional procedures to the nature and ability of the individual child. For many this may seem to be an obvious and essential instructional procedure, yet its practice shows many degrees of effectiveness.

The overall school curriculum is not usually determined by individual teachers but through cooperative efforts of school staffs under administrative leadership. In the larger districts the general curriculum is ordinarily developed by representative teacher committees under the direction of a designated curriculum leader. No matter what the practice is in general curriculum development, implementation of the curriculum falls on the classroom teacher. It is his responsibility to provide the appropriate instructional practices, those procedures and materials that he deems most suitable to the children being instructed.

HOW MUCH CAN WE ASSUME?

While a general uniform curriculum is needed, the opportunity for divergence from it is necessary. The desirable aspects of this procedure are usually conceded. Children differ. Whole schools differ. Average IQ's may differ 25 points in separate schools. Facilities and materials vary. The social and economic backgrounds of children demand diversified consideration. It is assumed then that flexibility in curriculum and instruction procedures is expected and encouraged, and is a major function of all teachers in the elementary school.

Can we make a further assumption that if schools proceed with a flexible implementation of curriculum they will attempt to establish it on a firm and total basis? In actual practice our implementation is haphazard. It is not unusual to observe schools that do an excellent job with *some* individualization practices. Many schools individualize reading and the subskills of reading, especially comprehension skills. It is the unusual school that has a total commitment to all of the major aspects of individual learning and the subsequent teaching procedures. Such a commitment not only involves teaching but it also requires the support of administrative policies and practices.

It is assumed that school personnel are well informed on the significance of the vast differences between and among pupils. How else can a differentiated curriculum plan be implemented? This is no easy task. New dimensions are added almost daily. Only recently have we come to realize that children from "across the tracks" have special learning problems, or that the economic level of a family can be an educational disadvantage. Boys differ significantly from girls in learning characteristics and response to the school environment.[1] Yet for years we have treated them as educational identical twins.

NEED FOR A FRAME OF REFERENCE

Human beings behave within a frame of reference related to the environment in which they function. How the teacher regards himself in the school environment determines his instructional approach. It is important for the teacher to establish a definite idea of his role in the school setting. Outstanding teachers have accurate perceptions of themselves and their roles, and this serves as a constant frame of reference for them.

The author has not been successful in finding brief definitions of teaching as practiced in the elementary school. Leland Jacobs in his *Image of the Teacher*,[2] however, does present an excellent statement on the role of the teacher. To be more precise about the teaching act itself, the following definition might be suggested as one frame of reference:

> Teaching is the process of modifying human behavior through the creation of exciting learning experiences for children.

A second frame of reference that is essential to the effective functioning of the teacher is his concept of the school. It is obvious that schools exist to produce educated human beings, and many of us are willing to let it go at that. But if we define the job of the teacher as the modification of behavior, then how does this relate to the purpose of the school, the collective teachers? The author again suggests a definition as a second frame of reference:

---

[1] The National Elementary Principal. *Sex Differences and the School*, November 1968.

[2] Leland Jacobs. *The Image of the Teacher*, N.E.A. Elementary Instructional Service, August 1964.

> The school is a place for students to think and to question, for finding some answers, but in so doing, raising more questions. It is a place where the appetites for learning are whetted, the imagination stimulated and reasoning challenged. It is where children can grow amazed at the minds of great men, challenged by the cleverness of nature, thrilled by the beauty of art and music, and helped to find their real selves in the adventure of creating. It is where learning to jump rope in the first grade has as much ego satisfaction for the child as being elected to the presidency of Rotary has for dad. It is a place where every day the child's vacuum of inexperience is filled with new discoveries: that three 3's are 9, how to finger-paint, how to find the volume of a sphere, the fact that the world really isn't round, or that more Eskimos live in Seattle than any other place in the world.
>
> What is a school? Where facts are learned, and skills mastered, and problems solved; that is for sure. But as a result of the school experience a better person emerges. He speaks in a different voice and with a different purpose. He can weigh and measure evidence that he has gathered. He can debate, challenge and analyze.
>
> He can defend a position or make critical observations. He can tell not just what, but why and how. He has a sense of values and a moral conscience. In short, a responsible, informed citizen has taken shape. He is a thinking person, capable of intelligent decisions regarding his personal life, his home life, and his community life. The function of the school is thereby fulfilled.

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION

Instruction that is concerned with individual differences stresses the very personal nature of success experiences. This implies that we as teachers will be fulfilling our responsibilities if children have a variety of successes, that there are not always uniform achievement expectancies, that one child may have mastered a skill before another is even ready to begin, and that the roles might be reversed on a second skill.

Such a position is based on the idea of learning that security and success are an essential part of growth. The child's place on the learning ladder is at that level where his self esteem is nurtured, not doubted. Pupil evaluation, then, must be based on the principle of emphasis on self competition. Child rating systems should give leads to analysis of difficulties and should not be used simply to report failures.

Grading practices based on single standards of achievement are often linked with basic instructional practices. In most cases narrow evaluation accompanies limited learning opportunities. The elementary school that has flexible reporting procedures based on individual growth rather than uniform standards of achievement needs to be encouraged to maintain this position. Today's emphasis on academic excellence makes flexible grading and reporting practices very difficult.

Such procedures call for an examination of the role of the textbook in learning. In spite of all that has been said and written about uninspired textbook use, a visitor to the middle and upper elementary grades will have no problem finding teachers who give uniform assignments from a uniform textbook, followed by uniform tests and examinations. The practice can hardly be called an exciting learning experience. Its positive effect on pupil-behavior change is questionable. It represents over-dependence on a single teaching tool and should be recognized as a misuse.

This seemingly great dependency upon a single text in social studies may be difficult to understand in light of the vast amount of other reading materials available. It has been observed that the practice is followed, however, not because of a lack of instructional materials but because of the inadequacy of curriculum guides. This situation constitutes a national problem. School districts are in desperate need of high-level guidance in preparing curriculum guides. Without guides to help teachers establish broad purposes, goals, and concepts to be taught, teachers have little choice but to plan instruction around subject-matter units using the textbook as the primary learning source. The text becomes both the means and the end.

Part of the problem is that the flexibility of the textbook is limited. It is obvious that if it is necessary to group children in reading because of different instructional (and therefore different frustration) levels, reading experiences in social studies need differentiation too. The pupils must have a large variety of reading materials of different levels of difficulty. The classroom teacher needs the support of a good school library. In addition, the library must function in such a way that materials are available to teacher and child whenever they are needed. These reading materials should include reference books, supplementary books, magazines, pictures, filmstrips, and newspapers.

Theories of learning[4] suggest that children learn best and most when in environments that provide generous amounts of stimuli. It is through the interaction of the child with his environment that learning takes place. Since the school setting and its operation are beyond the control of the child, the stimuli must be provided by the adults in the school. It is on this point that curriculum workers and administrators must cooperate closely with the classroom teacher. The teacher can decide what is needed but the other members of the team must see that it is provided. Teachers too often are expected to teach in an environment that is barren of significant stimuli. For example, some school districts actually have policies against field trips—not because of cost but because of the waste of time! What a sad commentary on our understanding of learning.

---

[4] William Vincent and Paul Mort, *The Effective Teacher's Handbook*. Institute of Administrative Research.

Instructional procedures that involve pupils in more than one kind of learning situation seem desirable for caring for individual differences. The imaginative teacher combines multiple resources with highly challenging and significant learning activities. The child then has the advantage of high motivation as well as many alternatives to help him be successful as a learner. Note the following examples:

> . . . A teacher in Camarillo, California, challenged her fourth and fifth grade pupils with a current problem—homework in the elementary school. After extensive individual and varied research, the class debated the issue for their parents and community.

> . . . A fifth grade teacher in Olympia, Washnigton, using a tape recorder, interviewed governors and high federal officials regarding conservation practices. The class formulated the questions for the interviews. Batting average? Eleven of the twelve officials responded—with enthusiasm!

> . . . A sixth grade teacher in Colorado Springs, Colorado, recently launched "Project Misery," a week-long experiment in segregation, prejudice, and discrimination. The class ate lunch in isolation, did not speak to others unless spoken to, stepped off the sidewalk to let others pass, sat in the rear of buses, and so on. The teacher stated that the children were more considerate of each other after the experience. One of the children commented, "It was an exciting experience."[*]

> . . . Not long ago a secondary teacher tried an interesting innovation. He was concerned about the reading ability of his pupils and their success in school, including the passing of examinations. He tried a new format for testing. Instead of simply mimeographing the test and handing it out, he included one additional dimension. He read each question orally two times. The result? Better grades on tests by poor readers!

As in any other curriculum area, the tools of social studies are unique. The first of these tools is vocabulary. Good teachers take time to make certain that the vocabulary is understood. As one teacher observed, "If the pupils know the vocabulary, they know half of what I have to teach." Other tools need to be taught: How to use references. How to use the library. The parts of a newspaper. How to read a map. How to read a globe.

Many elementary schools are inadequately equipped with supplementary materials, especially globes. Systematic instruction on map and globe skills is often neglected. In fact, such instruction is frequently a matter of chance. It is not uncommon to find classrooms where globes are kept on a high shelf, out of reach of children and therefore not used by them.

Let's get these tools out, dust them off, and wear them out before they are outdated. The average speed of an air transport passed the 175 m.p.h. mark years ago! Between 50 and 60 new nations have emerged since 1946. Our tools need to be up-to-date and children need instruction on how to use them.

The elementary schools of Grosse Point, Michigan, teach globe skills according to a defined curriculum. In each school fifteen uniform globes suitable for the intermediate grades have been purchased. These are used for a short period each day for about two weeks. Two pupils are assigned as a team to each globe and receive instruction in a systematic sequence of skills. The team learns and practices at an individual rate. At the end of the unit, the globes are sent to the next classroom.

The methods for caring for individual differences in the social studies can be reduced to a few fundamentals. There is a need for the total school staff to agree on a philosophical position consonant with the concept of differentiated instruction. Such an orientation must be supported by administrative policy. The individual teacher must then exert his professionalism by helping each child understand what there is in schooling that will benefit him. This is done by providing learning experiences that are individually significant. Is such instructional competency a tough job? There is little doubt that it is the most difficult teaching job there is. That is why it requires a highly skilled professional.

---

[*] *Portland Oregonian*, December 7, 1966.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

(Continued from page 407)

they are not open to *unlimited* interpretation. To put it another way, we must concentrate on developing more and better ways to use *structured* materials and procedures in a *free* way, recognizing that all children will not and *need* not grasp a given concept or understanding at a preconceived level, and accepting the idea that within our broad curricular framework it is both right and good that children should become more and more *themselves*, growing and developing both like and unlike their classmates.

2. It seems imperative, therefore, that we concentrate on developing far more effective ways to encourage children to take more responsibility for their own learning—to develop their abilities to work independently.

3. Similarly, recognizing that the feelings, beliefs, and attitudes of the collective members of a group are also a significant and potent educational force, we need to experiment with a far greater variety of grouping patterns. For example, we might attempt to assess the effects of family groupings in which younger and older children spend some time learning together, varieties of small groups, pairs of children, and so on. Conversely, we might consider drastically reducing the amount of time spent on large group, teacher-directed, formal class teaching.

4. Finally, we might make infinitely more use of what we can broadly label "diagnostic" techniques; that is, we need to spend considerably more time finding out what children know, how they think and feel, where they are strong, where they are weak. Beginning a year's *social* study with a series of diagnostic tests is almost unheard of; *not* doing so would be almost equally rare among modern teachers of *reading*.

LEARNING RESOURCES

(Continued from page 415)

mation discovered from carefully studying the content of the pictures.[8]

The innovations described are illustrative of new resources becoming available to individualize instruction in social studies. In the final analysis, however, it is not the addition of more hardware to the classroom that will, in and of itself, effect greater individualization of instruction any more than the addition of more hardware to the kitchen produces gourmet meals. Indeed, the critical factor is not a mechanical but a human one. The key point is *how* these media are put to work in individualizing instruction by the classroom teacher. And so, in a very real sense, the most important single resource in individualizing instruction still is the creative teacher.

---

[8] Further information on Study-Print Sets can be obtained from producers such as Silver Burdett Company, Park Ridge, Illinois; and Society for Visual Education, Inc., 1345 Diversey Parkway, Chicago, Illinois 60614.

MIDDLE AND UPPER GRADES

(Continued from page 412)

make a *unique* contribution to classwork. Too often he is merely one of a number of competitors having the same information that nobody especially cares about.

In preparing a specialty report, a pupil uses the tools of research available to him, developing increased proficiency in research, organization, and presentation skills. It is rich in opportunities for emphasizing pupil participation, discussion, planning, critical evaluation, personal contact, and individual initiative. It allows the pupil to share his findings with his classmates. Slow learners gain knowledge through observation and listening, and through participation in small group follow-up activities.

We have given considerable emphasis here to small group or pupil-team learning. Durrell says, "Pupil-team learning consists of dividing pupils into pairs, threes, or larger groups for mutual aid in learning. Learning tasks are set in which pupils work together, sharing, thinking, and planning, exchanging methods of approach, sharing tentative conclusions, correcting and evaluating each other's answers, producing either individual products or a single group product."[6] We have given emphasis to small groups or pupil teams because we believe such pupil deployment offers one of the best ways of actively involving the largest number of pupils in the heterogeneous classroom.

Our discussion has been concerned about providing for the needs of *all* individuals. Many teachers seek suggestions particularly for the slow learners and the able or gifted learners. Other references discuss the special instructional problems regarding these two groups.[7]

In the final analysis, whatever the setting, the ultimate test of school learning is individual growth and performance. Planning for individual growth and successful performance to the boundaries of a pupil's limitations in the dynamic area of social studies is a formidable task for any teacher. For optimum results it requires teamwork of teachers working at the same grade level. This is claimed as a built-in feature of team-teaching schools. It calls for a cooperative enterprise, initiated and encouraged by the principal for schools with self-contained classrooms. Teamwork is productive in planning for the provision for individual differences and in the development of materials for soundly based instruction.

---

[6] Durrell, *op. cit.*

[7] Chase, *op. cit.*, pp. 28-36; Jarolimek, *op. cit.*, pp. 169-170.

This is the fourth and final supplement in the first series of articles dealing with social studies education in the elementary school. The twenty articles of the four supplements are available in one volume and can be obtained through the National Council for the Social Studies for $1.50. Additional information concerning this publication is given in the advertisement on page 427 of this issue of *Social Education.*

The second series of supplements is now being planned. During the next year the supplements will discuss matters relating to some of the disciplines from which subject matter is selected for elementary social studies programs—geography, anthropology, political science, and economics. Readers are encouraged to suggest the names of potential authors for these articles. There is a special need to identify practicing classroom teachers who are willing and able to contribute articles to the supplements. Correspondence relating to articles and authorship of the elementary education supplement should be directed to John Jarolimek, College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle 98105.

Elementary Education Supplement
published four times a year.
Financed by the MARY G. KELTY FUND

SELECTED PUBLICATIONS
OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

Yearbooks

Thirty-Sixth Yearbook (1966), *Political Science in the Social Studies,* Donald H. Riddle and Robert E. Cleary, editors. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Thirty-Fifth Yearbook (1965), *Evaluation in Social Studies,* Harry D. Berg, editor. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Thirty-Fourth Yearbook (1964), *New Perspectives in World History,* Shirley H. Engle, editor. $5.00; clothbound $6.00.

Thirty-Third Yearbook (1963), *Skill Development in Social Studies,* Helen McCracken Carpenter, editor. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Thirty-Second Yearbook (1962), *Social Studies in Elementary Schools,* John U. Michaelis, editor. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Thirty-First Yearbook (1961), *Interpreting and Teaching American History,* William H. Cartwright and Richard L. Watson, Jr., co-editors. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Thirtieth Yearbook (1960), *Citizenship and a Free Society: Education for the Future,* Franklin Patterson, editor. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Twenty-Ninth Yearbook (1959), *New Viewpoints in Geography,* Preston E. James, editor. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Twenty-Eighth Yearbook (1958), *New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences,* Roy A. Price, editor. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Twenty-Seventh Yearbook (1956-57), *Science and the Social Studies,* Howard H. Cummings, editor. $4.00; clothbound $5.00.

Twenty-Sixth Yearbook (1955), *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum,* Ruth Ellsworth and Ole Sand, co-editors. $3.50; clothbound $4.00.

Bulletins

Bulletin No. 39 (1967), *Productivity and Automation,* J. J. Jehring, editor. $2.50

Bulletin No. 38 (1966), *Reading Guide in Politics and Government,* by Robert H. Connery, Richard H. Leach, and Joseph Zikmund II. $1.50

Bulletin No. 37 (1965), *The Study of Totalitarianism: An Inductive Approach* (A Guide for Teachers), by Howard D. Mehlinger. $2.00.

Bulletin No. 35 (1964), *Improving the Teaching of World Affairs: The Glens Falls Story,* by Harold M. Long and Robert N. King. $2.00.

Bulletin No. 34 (1963), *Guiding the Social Studies Reading of High School Students,* by Ralph C. Preston, J. Wesley Schneyer, and Franc J. Thyng. $1.50.

Bulletin No. 31 (rev. ed. 1962), *World History Book List for High Schools: A Selection for Supplementary Reading,* prepared by The World History Bibliography Committee of NCSS, Alice W. Spieseke, Chairman. $1.50.

Curriculum Series

Number Twelve (1965), *Social Studies in Transition: Guidelines for Change,* Dorothy McClure Fraser and Samuel P. McCutchen, editors. $2.25.

Number Ten (1958), *The Social Education of the Academically Talented,* Ruth Wood Gavian, editor. $2.00.

Number Eight (1953), *Social Studies in the College: Programs for the First Two Years,* William G. Tyrell, editor. $2.00.

Number Seven (rev. ed. 1965), *Social Studies in the Senior High School: Programs for Grades Ten, Eleven, and Twelve,* Willis D. Moreland, editor. $2.25.

Number Six (rev. ed. 1957), *Social Studies for the Junior High School: Programs for Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine,* Julian C. Aldrich, editor. $2.00.

Number Five (new ed. 1960), *Social Studies for the Middle Grades: Answering Teachers' Questions,* C. W. Hunnicutt, editor. $2.25.

Number Four (rev. ed. 1956), *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten-Primary Grades,* Mary Willcockson, editor. $2.00.

Orders which amount to $2.00 or less must be accompanied by cash.

Shipping charges will be prepaid on cash orders, but orders not accompanied by cash will be billed with shipping charges included.

A complete publications list sent free on request.